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THE PHILOSOPHICAL
HISTORY
AND
MEMOIRS
OF THE

Royal Academy of Sciences at *Paris* :

OR,

AN ABRIDGMENT of all the PAPERS relating
to *Natural Philosophy*, which have been
publish'd by the *Members* of that *Illustrious*
Society.

With many Curious OBSERVATIONS relating to the
Natural History and Anatomy of Animals, &c.

Illustrated with COPPER-PLATES.

The Whole Translated and Abridged,
By JOHN MARTYN, F. R. S.

Professor of Botany in the University of *Cambridge* ;

AND

EPHRAIM CHAMBERS, F. R. S.

Author of the Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences.

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THE PHOTOGRAPH

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AND

MEMOIRS

OF THE

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ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF PARIS

May 170

The Academy of all the Sciences relating
to Natural History, and the Arts, and
the Sciences of the Earth, and the
Human Mind.



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The Royal Academy of Sciences of Paris

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A N
A B R I D G M E N T
O F T H E
Philosophical Memoirs

O F T H E
ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at *Paris*
for the Year 1710.

X. *Observations on the variation of the needle, with regard to Dr. Halley's chart: together with some geographical remarks made from sea-journals, by M. Delisle *; translated by Mr. Chambers.*

FATHER Gouye having communicated to me 8 several journals of pilots, who steered ships from *France* to *Newfoundland*, and the *American* islands, I extracted from them what appeared of most advantage to navigation and geography; and having the use likewise of two other journals, one of them kept by M. *Hebert*, his majesty's envoy to the *Indies*, and the other by M. *Bigot de la Cante*, second lieutenant on board the king's ship the *Sphere*, to the coasts of *Guinea* and river *de la Plata*, I have thought proper to join all the observations together made in those several voyages, because all made nearly in the same time, viz. in the years 1706, 1707, 1708, and 1709.

* July 16, 1710.

The observations of the variation of the needle are of late become so essential to navigation, that the pilots take all occasions of making them; in effect, they cannot know the rumb in which they sail, without first observing the variation; and when the weather will not allow them to observe it, they are obliged to compute it from the observations of other navigators about the same places. They even begin to make use of it for correcting their reckoning, and finding, in some measure, the longitude, when, either by themselves, or others, they know the variation which should be found in such and such places. Thus M. *Daumas*, first pilot of the *St. Louis*, discovered hereby, that he was passing the line more westward than his reckoning gave him, and in the latitude of the island *Cape Verd*, he perceived by the variation, that he was 30 leagues more westward than by his reckoning. He adds, that upon approaching the island of *Bourbon*, in the *Indian* sea, finding the variation to be 21° —north-west, he learned hereby, that he was to the westward of that line, when his reckoning could not tell him so much.

It would be needless here to relate the computed variations, our knowledge on this head is much too scanty to make a just computation; I shall here therefore confine myself to such as have actually been observed, among which I shall always prefer those observed by the amplitudes to those by the azimuth; the former appearing surer, and less subject to error.

The longitudes I make use of are reckoned from the pike of *Teneriff*, according to the charts of *Pieter Goos*, which are those commonly used by our late navigators, for setting off their course.

At 120 leagues from the coasts of *France*, and $44^{\circ} \text{---} \frac{3}{4}$ latitude, one of the pilots, in the year 1709, found the variation 8°--- north-west by the sun's amplitude; and M. *Daumas*, in the same place a little before, found it the same. Dr. *Halley's* chart makes it $6^{\circ} \text{---} \frac{1}{2}$.

At $45^{\circ} \text{---} 7' \text{---}$ latitude, and $11^{\circ} \text{---} 31' \text{---}$ longitude, he found the variation $6^{\circ} \text{---} 40' \text{---}$ where Dr. *Halley* makes it $6^{\circ} \text{---} \frac{1}{2}$.

At $45^{\circ} \text{---} 20' \text{---}$ latitude, and $358^{\circ} \text{---} 15' \text{---}$ longitude, he found the variation 11°--- , where Dr. *Halley* only makes it 9.

Another pilot, setting out from *Rochel* for the *Cape Verd* islands in 1708, found at $35^{\circ} \text{---} 35' \text{---}$ latitude, and on the meridian of *Teneriff*, the variation to be $4^{\circ} \text{---} 35' \text{---}$ by the western amplitude: Dr. *Halley* makes it 4°---

At $27^{\circ} \text{---} 58' \text{---}$ latitude, and $353^{\circ} \text{---} 40' \text{---}$ longitude, he found the variation $4^{\circ} \text{---} 32' \text{---}$ where Dr. *Halley* makes it $2^{\circ} \text{---} 10' \text{---}$

At 36°--- lat. and $325^{\circ} \text{---} 46' \text{---}$ long. he found the variation $5^{\circ} \text{---} 8' \text{---}$ where Dr. *Halley* makes it $3^{\circ} \text{---} \frac{1}{2}$.

Another pilot at $46^{\circ} \text{---} 50' \text{---}$ latitude, and 230 leagues distance from *Rochel*, found the variation in 1709, to be $7^{\circ} \text{---} 50' \text{---}$ where Dr. *Halley* makes it $7^{\circ} \text{---} 30' \text{---}$

Soon after at 260 leagues from *Rochel*, and 47°--- latitude, he found the variation 8°--- where Dr. *Halley* likewise makes it 8.

At $33^{\circ} \text{---} 45' \text{---}$ lat. and 5°--- long. he found the variation 6°--- where Dr. *Halley* only makes it $3^{\circ} \text{---} \frac{3}{4}$.

The first pilot of the *Marianne* at $43^{\circ} \text{---} 45' \text{---}$ lat. and $340^{\circ} \text{---} 46' \text{---}$ long. found the variation in 1709, to be 13°--- where Dr. *Halley* only makes it 8.

All these observations were made on this side the line of no variation, supposing them exact, the variations must have increased on this side the line, since the time of Dr. *Halley's* chart; but less in one place than another.

M. *Bigot de la Cante*, in a voyage to the river *de la Plata* in 1707, found at $44^{\circ}—45'$ —lat. and 52 leagues distance from *Cape Finisterre*, the variation to be $7^{\circ}—20'$ —north-west, where Dr. *Halley* only makes it $6^{\circ}—15'$; and the same variation he found in the 4 ensuing days, during which he made 60 leagues south-westwards. In Dr. *Halley's* chart, it is 6° —all along this line.

At $7^{\circ}—15'$ —lat. and $1^{\circ}—50'$ —long. he found the variation $2^{\circ}—30'$ —where Dr. *Halley* only makes it $50'$ —

In the road of *Judda*, on the *Guinea* coast, he found the variation in 1708, $8^{\circ}—20'$. M. *Des Marchais*, in 1705, found it 8° —. In the same place, Dr. *Halley* only makes it 5° —

In the eastern part of the island of *San-Thomas* under the line, he found it $11^{\circ}—30'$ —where Dr. *Halley* only makes it $5^{\circ}—30'$ —

From hence M. *Bigot* sailed south-easterly to 4° —south lat. not far from the coasts of *Congo*, from whence he always bore to the south-west, and west-south-west, as far as the mouth of the river *de la Plata*, where he arrived in *April*, 1708. This traverse of 14 leagues is the fittest that could be thought of for examining the variations assigned by Dr. *Halley* in this sea; and the more so, as it cuts all Dr. *Halley's* lines almost perpendicularly.

Along this course, the variation, which was north-west, grew less and less every day, till having made 560 leagues, it entirely disappeared,
and

and henceforwards the variations were north-west. This line of no variation Dr. *Halley* makes 120 leagues more easterly, than M. *Bigot* found it, and makes a variation of 1° — $30'$ —north-east, where M. *Bigot* found none; so that we are not to wonder, if the variation, found by M. *Bigot* before his arrival at this line, were greater than that assigned by Dr. *Halley*, by 1 or 2 $^{\circ}$ —and sometimes more.

In *April*, 1709, M. *Bigot* left the river *de la Plata*, and pursued much the same course as he had kept before, for the space of about 800 leagues; but the observations he made in returning do not agree with those made in going, tho' by estimation he thought himself in the same places, where he had observed before. The place where in going he found the variation $20'$ —north-east, appeared by his estimation 9° —more easterly, than that where he found the variation $26'$ in his return, and the other places in proportion to their distance from the mouth of the river *de la Plata*, which probably arises from the waters of that huge river, which communicating its current to the sea, by a mouth 30 leagues broad directed to the east, may be supposed to retard the motion of the ship in going, and accelerate it in its returning.

From hence M. *Bigot* sailed to *Martinico*, and in his passage thence to *France* in 1709, at 28° — $30'$ —lat. and 316° — $30'$ —long. found the variation 1° — $30'$ —north-west, where Dr. *Halley* makes it 1° —north-east; so that the variation has here changed from north-east to north-west, and the line of no variation, which was eastwards of this place, has travelled to the westward thereof since Dr. *Halley's* chart, if we may credit these observations.

At $32^{\circ}—15'$ —lat. and $321^{\circ}—45'$ —long. he found the variation $4^{\circ}—10'$, where Dr. *Halley* makes it 2° —less.

At $36^{\circ}—50'$ lat. and 329° long. he found the variation $7^{\circ}—10'$, where Dr. *Halley* makes it $4^{\circ}—30'$.

At $45^{\circ}—8'$ lat. and $305^{\circ}—30'$ long. he found the variation $10^{\circ}—10'$, which is 2° —more than in Dr. *Halley's* chart.

From all these observations, supposing them just, it appears, first, that in the parallel of 22° —south latitude, the line of no variation has shifted 120 leagues westwards, from the year 1700 to 1708.

Secondly, That the variation has increased on this side that line, while it has diminished on the other; tho' in three or four places M. *Bigot* found it the same as is expressed in the chart; and in some others found it even greater, unless we rather choose to cast the irregularity on the observations, which I believe the safest way.

The ship *St. Louis* went with the *Golden-fleece*, and the *Maurepas* went in 1706 for the *South-sea*; the observations made on board this last have already been delivered by M. *Cassini*; but the first quitting the other two on the coasts of *Chili*, carried M. *Hebert* on to the *Indies*; in which voyage, besides M. *Daumas* the pilot's journal, I have another kept by M. *Brunet*, an officer in the ship, who made several curious remarks, overlooked by M. *Daumas*.

This pilot putting out from *Port-Louis*, in July 1706, at 25 leagues north-north-east of the island of *Porto-Santo*, near *Madera*, found the variation 5° —north-west, where Dr. *Halley's* chart only makes it 4.

Close

Cloſe by *Madeira* on the ſouth-weſt, he found it $4^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$, where Dr. *Halley* only makes it $3^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$.

Between the iſland of *Madeira*, and that of *Faro*, he found it 4, where Dr. *Halley* makes it 3.

At 50 leagues ſouth-ſouth-weſt of the iſland of *Faro*, he found the variation 3, where Dr. *Halley* makes it 2.

At $18^{\circ} - 15'$ lat. and 357° long. he found the variation $2^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$, between which place and the bank of *Bifagos*, on the coaſt of *Guinea*, he obſerved the variation 4 times, and found it always $2^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$; Dr. *Halley* makes it in theſe places about 1° .

At 358° —long. and 6° —lat. he found the variation 2° —, as well as at $3^{\circ} - 15'$ lat. and $10'$ long. in both which places, Dr. *Halley* makes the variation about $\frac{1}{2}$ a degree.

From this place, bearing to the ſouth-eaſt, as far as the equinoctial, which he cut at 7° —long. the variation in about 50 leagues courſe changed from 2 to 3° — at 50 leagues further from 3 to 4° — and at the end of 50 more, from 4 to 5° . In theſe places, Dr. *Halley* only makes 1° — or $1^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$ variation, and in lieu of 50 leagues, makes 80 leagues between each degree of variation.

Having paſſed the line he bore ſouth-weſterly as far as 9° — of ſouth lat. and $356^{\circ} - 15'$ — long. where he alſo found the variation change a degree in 50 leag. diminifhing at this rate from 5 to 4, from 4 to 3, from 3 to 2, and from 2 to 1; ſo that at the end of about 250 leagues, there was no variation at all, and 50 leagues further, the variation was 1° — north-eaſt; whereas hitherto it had been north-weſt; ſo that the place where the ſhip cut the line of no variation

is, by their account, 100 leagues more westward than laid down by Dr. *Halley*.

Proceeding on towards the island of *Ascension*, at 20 leagues north-east of that island, M. *Dau-mas* found the variation 6° —; where Dr. *Halley* also makes it 6° —north-east.

Passing hence to the island *Grande*, on the coast of *Brazil*, M. *Brunet* relates, that the variation was found 11° — $\frac{2}{3}$, which is much the same as in Dr. *Halley*'s chart.

From hence passing to the straits of *Magellan*, he found the variation at 12° —north-east, where Dr. *Halley* makes it $12\frac{1}{2}$, 13 where he makes it $13\frac{1}{2}$, 16 where he makes it $16\frac{1}{2}$, 17 where he makes $18\frac{1}{2}$, 18 where he makes it 19, 19 where he makes $19\frac{1}{2}$, and $19\frac{1}{2}$ where he makes it 20° . —All these observations I relate, because they confirm one another; with regard to which it may also be observed, that the last observation given by M. *Brunet*, was made in 40° — $30'$ —south lat. and that the ship having sailed 60 leagues under the same parallel, he found the same variation in three successive observations at this latitude, which perfectly agrees with the inclination of the lines of variation given by Dr. *Halley* about this place, they being inclined from east to west, for the space of 50 or 60 leagues, and thence turning insensibly towards the south-west in form of an *ellipsis*, as far as the straits of *Magellan*.

Arriving in *December* 1706, at the latitude of 57° — $10'$ and 60 leagues south-westward of the straits of *Le Maire*, M. *Brunet* relates, that the variation was found 26° —north-east, and that the same variation continued for the space of 40 leagues. Here our comparison ceases with Dr. *Halley*'s

Halley's chart, which does not give the variations in this sea.

Having doubled *Cape Horn*, to the south of *Terra del Fuego*, they arrived at the city *Conception*, on the coasts of *Chili*, where M. *Brunet* found the variation $9^{\circ}—30'$. Hence they proceeded for *Valparaise*, where they found the variation $8^{\circ}—$. At *Pisco* and *Canete* $6^{\circ}—\frac{1}{2}$, and at *Callao*, the port of *Lima*, $6^{\circ}—$. All which observations agree within half a degree to those made on the *Maurepas*, published by M. *Cassini*, who in examining the course of that vessel observes, that as their latitude increased, the variation increased; to which, from these observations of Mess. *Brunet* and *Daumas*, we may add, that in the same parallel, the further they proceeded from the shores westward, the variation diminished.

Thus at $44^{\circ}—45'$ lat. and about thirty leagues distance from the coasts of *Chili*, they found $12^{\circ}—$ variation, and in the same parallel at 120 leagues distance from the coast found only $7^{\circ}—$.

Between 40 and $41^{\circ}—$ lat. at 10 leagues distance from the shore, they found $9^{\circ}—$ variation, and only $6^{\circ}—$ at 130 leagues distance from the same shore.

Between 30 and $31^{\circ}—$ lat. and 60 leagues from the shore, they found $7^{\circ}—$ variation, and only 5 at 220 leagues.

The same ship departing from the *Conception* in *December*, 1707, doubled *Cape Horn* a second time, came to anchor in the river *Gallegua*, not far from the straits of *Magellan*, and from whence set sail for the *Cape of Good Hope*; being, I think,

the first ship that made this course, so that its observations are the more valuable.

At their departure from the river *Gallegua*, they found the variation 23° —north-east.

At 60 leagues from this place, they found it 22° —north-east.

At 30 leagues further 20° —

At 150 leagues further 18° —

At 110 leagues further 16° —

At 150 leagues further 14° —

At 60 leagues further 13° —

At 50 leagues further 12° —

At 20 leagues further 11° —

At 30 leagues beyond this 10° —

At 20 leagues further 8° —

At 100 leagues beyond this only 4° —

And, lastly, at 120 leagues further the variation was nothing.

All these variations are north-easterly to the place where there was found no variation. — The following ones are north-westerly.

At 60 leagues further eastward, they found the variation 2° —north-west.

At 80 leagues further 4° —

At 60 leagues beyond this 7° —

At 140 leagues further $9^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$.

And, lastly, at 60 leagues further, near the *Cape of Good Hope*, where they arrived in *Mar.* 1708, the variation was found 8° —

Now, according to *Dr. Halley's* chart, the variation should have increased from the place of their departure in the space of 240 leagues from 20 to 23° — and in the rest of their passage should have diminished about 1° for every 2° — of longitude, as far as the line of no variation, and from

from hence to the *Cape*, have increased north-westward, in the same proportion as it had diminished north-eastward; but it appears on the contrary, from these observations, that the greatest variation found by them in the whole passage, was in this place of their departure, where it was found 23° . ——— It also appears, that when it did diminish, this diminution did not always proceed in the same proportion as expressed in Dr. *Halley's* chart; but that during the first 500 leagues, the variation diminished a degree for 4° ——— of longitude; after which they found it diminished another degree, in the space of a degree and half of longitude; but henceforward the variations altered, as in Dr. *Halley's* chart, viz. 1° — for 2 in longitude.

It also appears from these observations, that from the year 1700, the epocha of Dr. *Halley's* chart to the year 1709, the line of no variation shifted 50 leagues westward in 35° ——— of southern latitude. We have already observed, that in the latitude of 22° ——— it had shifted 120 leagues, according to the observations of M. *Bigot*, that for the 7° ——— south, he found it 100 leagues more westward; and that at the latitude of 28° ——— north, he also found it more westerly than Dr. *Halley* makes it at that latitude; so that the motion of this line westward is confirmed by many observations.

Proceeding from the *Cape of Good Hope* eastwards, they found the variation always increase to the distance of 530 leagues from the *Cape*; and in $33^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$ south latitude, where they found the variation $24^{\circ} - \frac{1}{2}$ north-west, which is the greatest they observed in the *Indian* sea. Hence to

the island *Bourbon*, and to *Pondichery* and *Merguy*, they found it less and less every day, as at their return they found it every day greater and greater to the same term, and about the same distance from the *Cape*. Dr. *Halley* only differs about half a degree from these observations.

The other observations made by these persons in the *Indian* sea, differ but little from those related by M. *Cassini*, so that we content ourselves to refer to them.

These are all the observations of the variation that the journals afforded, I shall subjoin some remarks made from the same journals for the correction, and improvement of sea charts, especially those of *Pieter Goos*, which might one day be rendered much more useful to navigators, were a great number of such journals made.

The first pilot of the *Royal-dauphine* took notice of the *Salvages*, which are certain dangerous islands to the north of the *Canaries*, whose situation therefore cannot be too exactly known by the pilots; he found them very ill laid down on the sea charts, being placed too much eastward; with regard to the island of *Porto Santo*, at a league and half south-west of these islands, he found the latitude 30° —Their number he observes is two, whereof the more northern one is the greater, from whence a chain of rocks extends for about three leagues south-westward; at the end whereof is a little round island, with some flat ground, where the sea beats extremely.

The first pilot of the *St. Louis*, in his passage to the island of *Ascension*, found it placed by *Pieter Goos*, half a degree too much northward,
its

its latitude he observed to be $20^{\circ}—22'$, instead of $19^{\circ}—52'$, as that author makes it.

The ship *Louis* we have already noted to have been the first which sailed from the straits of *Magellan* directly to the *Cape of Good Hope*. At its departure from the river *Galleguas*, it made east-north-east the space of 1350 leagues, which brought it to that *Cape*; but in the way at $36^{\circ}—54'$ latitude, and $353^{\circ}—10'$ longitude, by the reckoning, they discovered an island about a league distance, and soon after two others, 3 or 4 leagues to the south-west; and, lastly, a 4th, to the north-west, which surprized them very much, they being 300 leagues from land.

M. *Brunet* took these islands to resemble those of *Tristan de Cunha*, which he had seen in his voyage to *China* on board the *Amphitrite*; but M. *Hebert*, and the first pilot were of a contrary opinion, by reason, according to the reckoning, they had yet only made 750 leagues from the river *de Galleguas*, whereas *Pieter Goos*, placing those islands in 12° of longitude, makes them 1050 leagues from the said river; and they were further confirmed in this opinion upon their arrival at the *Cape of Good Hope*, where by the reckoning they found 35° of longitude, between those islands and the *Cape* in lieu of 26° according to the chart, which makes a difference of 150 leagues in this parallel. Upon this they made no difficulty of accounting them a new discovery, and gave them the name of the *Hebert* islands, or the new islands of *Tristan de Cunha*.

Yet to me the opinion of M. *Brunet*, who took them for the very islands of *Tristan de Cunha*

Cunba, appears much more probable. 'Tis no new thing for pilots to make new discoveries, and impose new names upon islands known long before them, of which we have an instance in the island of *St. Helena*, which having been placed by the first navigators more westerly than it really is, was afterwards found by others more easterly than it had been laid down in the charts, which made them take it for a new island in the same latitude, but a different longitude from the first, and accordingly they gave it the name of the new island *St. Helena*, and inserted it in the sea charts; in most whereof, particularly those of *Pieter Goos*, it is still found so. The island *St. Apollonia* in the *Indian* sea is the same with the island of *Bourbon*; and the *Isle of Dogs* in the *South-Sea*, found by *Le Maire* in 1616, is the same with the island of *Tiburones*, discovered by *Magellan* in 1520; so in all likelihood the new islands discovered by our navigators, are no other than those of *Tristan de Cunha*. For *Dr. Halley*, who was at the islands of *Tristan de Cunha* in 1700, lays them down in his chart at the same distance which the reckoning of these persons required; tho' the chart of *Pieter Goos* makes them 150 leagues off; and as to the distance of these islands from the river *de Galeguas*, which by their reckoning was 750 leagues, 'tis true, *Dr. Halley* makes it 170 leagues more; but then the longitude, in which that author places the mouth of this river, must be diminished by 10°—— as I have done in my map of *South America*, from several assured observations, and among others, that of an eclipse on the 13th of *Mar.* 1653, observed by father *Mascardi* in the valley of *Bucalene* in *Chili*; for by this observation,

ervation, compared with others made at *Paris*, *Bucalene* is $72^{\circ} \text{---} \frac{1}{2}$ westward of *Paris*, and consequently the river of *Galeguas*, whose distance from *Bucalene* is known, should only be 68° from *Paris*; add, that by the observations of father *Fontaney* it appears, that the *Cape of Good Hope* is $17^{\circ} \text{---} 45'$ more eastward than *Paris*; so that the distance between that *Cape* and the river of *Galeguas*, must be $84^{\circ} \text{---} 25'$, which comes within a degree and half of the reckoning of the *St. Louis*.

XI. *Reflections on the observations of the flux and reflux of the sea, made at Havre de Grace, by M. Boissaye du Bocage, professor of hydrography, during the years 1701 and 1702, by M. Cassini, jun^{*}. translated by Mr. Chambers.*

The place chosen by M. *Du Bocage* for his observations, was a part of the port best under shelter, here he erected a plank 10 feet $\frac{1}{2}$ long against the wall of the port, and divided it into inches, whereon he observed the tides which happened in the day-time, having no conveniency for taking those of the night.

He observes, that the sea, while it rose, drove to the south-east and to the north-west, when it fell; that the wind which traversed the road was west-north-west, and at the entrance of the port lay in the direction of the west-south-west wind.

The journal of his observations begins on the 9th of *April*, 1701, and ends on the 26th of *May*, 1702.

At first he contented himself with marking day by day the part of the plank to which the flood rose, with the winds that blew both in the ebb and flow; but two months after, beginning on the 10th of *June* he observed the hours and minutes of high water, which he continued till the end of his observations, excepting a little interval between the 11th and 28th of *Nov.* during which he was obliged to have his watch mended.

Upon examining the times of high water observed at *Havre de Grace*, we find that on the days of full moon, the flood usually happens a

* Aug. 13, 1710.

little after 9 in the morning. The earliest high water was on the 19th of *July*, the day of full moon, when it happened at 39' past 8 in the morning; and the latest was on the 12th of *April*, at 39' past 9; which gives a variation of an hour, in the time of the tides for the day of full moon.

Supposing the time of high water at *Havre de Grace* on the day of full moon to be at 9^h—26' in the morning, when the time of full moon coincides with that of high water, and that an allowance is made of 2' for each hour, that the time of full moon comes, before or after the time of high water, as already settled at *Dunkirk*, we shall find less variations in the times of high water observed at *Havre de Grace*. For an instance, on the 19th of *July*, 1701, high water happened at 8^h—39' in the morning, which is the greatest anticipation M. *Du Bocage* observed. Now full moon is marked that day in the almanack at 11^h—50' in the evening, the difference between 9^h—26' in the morning, and 11^h—50' in the evening, is 14^h—24'; to which at the rate of 2' per hour answer 29', which subtracted from 9^h—26', give 8^h—57' for the time of high water, within 18' of what was observed at *Havre de Grace*.

'Tis observed, that the 19th of *July*, 1701, is the same day on which the greatest acceleration of high water at full moon was observed at *Dunkirk*.

As to the latest high water on the days of full moon, it was found on the 12th of *April* at 9^h—39', the full moon happening at 0^h—13' in the evening; so that here should have been an anticipation of 6', which subtracted from 9^h—26', gives the time of high water on the

12th of *April*, 1701, at 9^h — 20' within 19' of what was observed.

Upon a like examination of the observations of high water made at *Havre* in the time of new moon, it appears at first sight, that the floods in the new moons happen 12 or 13' later, than in the full moons ; and yet allowing for the acceleration or retardation of 2' *per* hour above-mentioned, and supposing the time of high water in the new moons at *Havre*, to be at 9^h — 26' in the morning, as in the full moons, the observations of the full moons will be easily reconciled to those of the new moons, excepting two, whose regularity was extraordinary, there being an anticipation of several minutes in the time of high water, between one day and another, in lieu of the usual retardation. — The new moon, wherein high water came the earliest, was on the 29th of *Nov.* 1701, when it was flood, at 8^h — 56' in the morning, and the new moon is marked in the almanack at 10^h — 11' in the evening of that day, the difference between 9^h — 26' in the morning, and 10^h — 11' in the evening, is 12^h — 45' ; to which answer 25' $\frac{1}{2}$, which subtracted from 9^h — 26', by reason the new moon happened on the evening, gives the time of high water at 9^h — 0' $\frac{1}{2}$, within 4' of what was observed.

It is observable, that this new moon was the same as that wherein the greatest acceleration of high water was found at *Dunkirk*, which we have attributed to the time of new moon, which happened at 10^h — 11' in the evening.

The new moon, wherein it was found flood the latest, was that of *August* the 4th, 1701, high water on that day was found at 9^h — 48' in the morning, and the new moon is fixed by
the

the almanack to 10^h —— $15'$ in the same morning. Now by the rule laid down, high water would have happened at 9^h —— $24'$ in the morning, within $24'$ of what was observed; but it is observable, that from the 4th to the 5th of *Aug.* there was an anticipation of $11'$ in time of high water, in lieu of a retardation; so that nothing can be built upon this observation, nor even upon that of the 2d of *September*, 1701, the day of new moon, when high water was observed at 9^h —— $46'$ in the morning, there being an anticipation here likewise of $20'$ from the 2d to the 3d of *Sept.*

As to the highest tides at *Havre de Grace*, they do not usually fall upon the day of new and full moon, but one or two days after, as has been observed at *Dunkirk*; and as they have likewise been found not only in other parts of the channel, but on the coasts of *Africa* and *America*.

The highest tide observed at *Havre* was on the 15th of *Feb.* 1702, when the flood rose 18 feet, 3 inch. 3 days after full moon, which had happened on the 12th of the same month at 3^h —— $2'$ in the evening, the wind was then very strong, and blew at south-south-west, which conspiring with the tide, and driving it towards the port, might have contributed to its extraordinary elevation that day.

As to the tides near the equinoxes at new and full moons, some of them are higher, and others lower so that it can be no rule at *Havre*, that the equinoctial tides are the highest.

What is further remarkable is, that the heights of the tides keep exactly pace with the different distances of the moon from the earth in all states, whether near the equinoxes, or at any distance therefrom, as has likewise been observed at *Dun-*

kirk.——For an instance on the 10th of *April*, 1701, two days after the new moon succeeding the vernal equinox, the height of the water was found 15 feet, 6 inches, 6 lines, which is lower by 1 foot, 3 inches $\frac{1}{2}$, than on the 10th of *May*; two days after the next full moon, which yet was further from the equinox, agreeably to the distance of the moon, which was farther from the earth on the 8th of *April*, the day of new moon; than on the 24th of *April*, the day of full moon; so on the 19th of *September*, 1701, two days after the full moon next the autumnal equinox, the height of flood was found 15 feet, 11 inches, which was lower by 1 foot, 10 inches, than on the 4th of *October*; two days after next new moon, when the water was found 17 feet, 9 inches, high, one of the highest tides that had been known; and again on the 16th of next *October*, the day of full moon high water was observed 16 feet, 3 inches, which was lower than on the 4th of *October*; and on the 1st of *November* it was found 16 feet, 11 inches, which was higher than on the 4th of *October*.

These different heights of the tides cannot be owing to the different distances of the sun from the equinoxes; since the water was lower near the equinox, than in the other observations further from it; but they agree perfectly with the different distances of the moon from the earth, at the time of new and full moons.——For on the 17th of *September*, the moon was further from the earth than in the other observations on the 2d of *October*; it was nearer on the 16th of the same month; it was further distant than on the 4th, but less on the 17th of *September*; and on the 31st of *October* it was nearer than on the 17th, but further than on the 4th of *October*.

It would be tedious to rehearse all the relations between the observations, and the distances of the moon from the earth ; it may suffice to observe, that on the 15th of *March*, 1702, high water was found 17 feet, 1 inch $\frac{1}{2}$, whereas on the 30th of *March*, at an equal distance from the equinox, it was only found 15 feet, 8 inches ; and that on the 15th of *April* it was observed 17 feet, 6 inches $\frac{3}{4}$; and on the 28th of *April*, 15 feet, 2 inches, all which agrees with the different distances of the moon, which was nearer the earth on the 15th of *April* ; and further off on the 28th of the same month, than in any other preceding observation, as may be seen in the following table :

ATABLE of the time and height of the tides,

Days and Hours of the new and full moons.			Time of high water ob- served.	Time of high water calcu- lated.	Height of the sea		
	1701.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	F.	In.	L.
●	8 Apr.	10 54 M.					
○	22 Apr.	5 16 E.			16	3	
●	8 May,	1 42 M.			15	2	
○	22 May,	2 18 M.			15	11	
●	6 June,	2 28 E.		9 16	14	11	6
○	20 June,	0 26 E.	9 1	9 20	15	4	
●	6 July,	0 58 M.	9 25	9 43	15	0	3
○	19 July,	11 50 E.	8 39	8 57	14	6	9
●	4 Aug.	10 15 M.	9 48	9 24	15	8	6
○	18 Aug.	2 6 E.	9 6	9 16	$\frac{1}{2}$ 15	4	
●	2 Sept.	6 5 E.	9 46	9 8	$\frac{1}{2}$ 15	11	6
○	17 Sept.	5 56 M.	9 30	9 34	15	4	
●	2 Oct.	2 20 M.	9 33	9 40	17	2	
○	16 Oct.	11 24 E.	9 12	8 58	16	3	
●	31 Oct.	11 24 M.	9 34	9 22	16	7	6
○	15 Nov.	5 4 E.		9 11	15	10	
●	29 Nov.	10 11 E.	8 56	9 0	17	0	
○	15 Dec.	10 16 M.	9 30	9 24	15	4	8
●	29 Dec.	10 47 M.	8 59	9 23	15	11	9
1702.							
○	14 Jan.	1 12 M.	9 25	9 43	16	5	8
●	28 Jan.	1 57 M.	9 45	9 43	16	1	6
○	12 Feb.	3 2 E.	9 6	9 15	15	9	
●	26 Feb.	6 15 E.	9 25	9 8	15	6	4
○	14 Mar.	1 48 M.	9 34	9 41	$\frac{1}{2}$ 16	7	
●	28 Mar.	11 7 M.	9 38	$\frac{1}{2}$ 9 23	15	3	
○	12 Apr.	0 13 E.	9 39	9 20	16	9	
●	27 Apr.	5 49 M.	9 40	9 33	15	0	9
○	11 May,	4 59 E.	9 23	9 11	16	3	3
●	26 May,	8 27 E.	9 25	9 4	14	1	6

in the new and full moon at Havre de Grace.

Distance of the sun from the apogee of the moon.		Distance of the moon from the earth in conjunct. and oppos.	Day of the highest tide.	Height of the sea.		
D. M. S.				F.	In.	L.
1	0	21	105589	10 April.	15	6 6
				24 April.	16	10
				9, 10 May.	15	6 3
				23 May.	16	0 6
				8, 9 June.	15	7
3	2	33	99713	21 June.	15	5 9
3	16	2	98372	7 July.	15	3 3
				22 July.	15	0 3
				7 August.	16	10
				19 August.	15	11 6
				4 September.	17	6
5	18	10	106340	19 September.	15	11
6	1	13	93469	4 October.	17	9
				16, 17 October.	16	3
				1 November.	16	11
				16 November.	15	11
				30 November.	17	10
				18 December.	15	6
				30 December.	16	5 6
				1702.		
9	4	37	100013	14 January.	16	5 8
9	17	19	100477	29 January.	16	4 9
				15 February.	18	3
				28 February.	17	2
				15 March.	17	1 6
				30 March.	15	8
11	22	55	93519	15 April.	17	6 9
0	5	52	106496	28 April.	15	2 3
				12 May.	17	0

If

If now we examine the time of high water observed in the quadratures, we shall find it happen at *Havre* 30' past 2 in the evening.

Among the 23 observations made hereof, the flood which come the earliest, was on the 6th of *March*, 1702, at 1^h—55' in the evening, and the latest, on the 5th of *May*, at 3^h—30'.

To frame some rule of this variation, we suppose the mean time of high water in the quadratures at *Havre*, to be at 2^h—40' in the evening, and add or subtract from this time 2' per hour, for the time which the quadrature noted in the almanack anticipates, or comes behind the mean time of high-water, as fixed at 2^h—40' in the evening.

For an instance on the 6th of *March*, 1702, high water was observed at 1^h—55' in the evening; the first quadrature is noted in the almanack for that day at 10^h—24' in the evening, the difference between 2^h 40' and 10^h—24' in the evening, is 7^h—44', to which, at the rate of 2' per hour, answer 15' $\frac{1}{2}$, which subtracted from 2^h—40', gives 2^h—24' $\frac{1}{2}$, for the time of high water within 25' $\frac{1}{2}$ of what was observed.———So on the 5th of *May*, 1702, the day when the tide came latest in the quadratures, high water was observed at 3^h—30', the first quadrature is fixed in the almanack at 1^h—59', that day in the morning the difference between 1^h—59' in the morning, and 2^h—40' in the evening, is 12^h—41', to which at 2 per hour, answer 25', which added to 2^h—40', give 3^h—5', for the time of high water within 25' of what was observed.

The time of high water would have been found more exactly in these two observations, if in lieu of 2' for each hour of anticipation, or retardation,

we had taken $3'$, which agrees nearer with the retardation of the tides from 1 day to another, about the quadratures which usually exceeds an hour.

High water happening at *Havre* in the new and full moons at $9^h-26'$ in the morning, and in the quadratures at $2^h-40'$, we have $5^h-14'$ for the interval between the times of high water from the new and full moons to the quadratures. — This interval was found at *Dunkirk* $5^h-12'$, which shews the great conformity between the times of the tides in those 2 ports.

As to the least tides observed at *Havre de Grace*, they do not usually happen in the 2 quadratures, but 1 or 2 days after the first or last quarter. — The lowest tide was found on the 8th of *March*, 1702, two days after the 1st quadrature, the water on that day rising only 9 feet, 8 inches, 4 lines; and the highest tide, as already mentioned, happened the 15th of *February*, and rose 18 feet, 3 inches; so that there is a difference of 8 feet, 7 inches, between the highest and lowest tides at *Havre*; whereas the difference was only found 7 feet at *Dunkirk*.

By comparing the different heights of the tides observed at *Havre*, about the quadratures, we likewise find them bear a near relation to the different distances of the moon from the earth, as will appear from the following table. — Where it is observable, that on the 22d of *January*, 1702, the moon being in Perigeo about the quadratures, the height of the flood was found 13 feet, 2 inches, 8 lines, which is less only by 2 feet, than on the 28th of *April*, 1702, two days after the new moon, which was then in apogeo.

TABLE of the time and height of the

Days and hours of the quadratures.			Time of low water observed.	Time of high water calculated.	Height of the sea.		
	1701.	H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	F.	In.	L.
1	□ 16 Apr.	2 8 M.		3 6	11	2	6
3	□ 29 Apr.	10 25 E.		2 24	12	2	6
1	□ 15 May	9 6 M.		2 51	13	0	6
3	□ 29 May	3 38 E.		2 38	12	3	0
1	□ 13 June	2 26 E.	3 1 S.	2 40 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	6	
3	□ 28 June	9 14 M.	3 10	2 51	11	9	
1	□ 12 July	7 17 E.	2 5	2 31	13	11	
3	□ 28 July	2 23 M.	3 0	3 5	11	10	
1	□ 11 Aug.	1 14 M.	2 50	3 7	13	11	6
3	□ 26 Aug.	6 6 E.	2 0 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 33	12	4	3
1	□ 9 Sept.	9 20 M.	2 42	2 51	13	7	8
3	□ 25 Sept.	7 58 M.	2 24	2 53 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	3	6
1	□ 8 Oct.	8 47 E.	2 29	2 28	13	6	4
3	□ 24 Oct.	7 50 E.	2 30	2 30	11	7	9
1	□ 7 Nov.	0 17 E.	2 51	2 45	12	5	
3	□ 23 Nov.	6 0 M.		2 58	12	6	
1	□ 7 Dec.	7 31 M.	2 51	2 54 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	4	
3	□ 22 Dec.	8 48 E.	2 39	2 28	13	6	
1702.							
1	□ 6 Jan.	5 47 M.	3 4	2 58	14	33	
3	□ 20 Jan.	10 41 E.	2 13	2 24	15	3 $\frac{1}{3}$	
1	□ 5 Feb.	2 34 M.	2 36	3 4	12	5	3
3	□ 19 Feb.	6 33 M.	2 24	2 56 $\frac{1}{2}$	13	4	
1	□ 6 Mar.	10 24 E.	1 55	2 24 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	3	6
3	□ 20 Mar.	3 47 E.	2 46	2 38	13	4	9
1	□ 5 Apr.	2 9 E.	2 12	2 41	11	8	
3	□ 19 Apr.	3 39 M.	3 14	3 2	12	2	9
1	□ 5 May	1 59 M.	3 30	3 6	11	5	
3	□ 18 May	4 4 E.	3 10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 37	12	2	8

tides in the quadratures at Havre de Grace.

Distance of the sun from the apogee of the moon.			Distance of the moon from the earth in the quadratures.	Day of the lowest tide.	Height of the sea.		
D.	M.	S.			F.	In.	L.
				17 April.	10	10	
				1 May.	10	10	6
				16 May.	12	7	6
				30 May.	11	4	
2	26	40	97615	14 June.	13	0	
3	9	17	106250	29 June.	11	3	
				14 July.	12	11	
				29 July.	11	6	
				13 August.	12	7	
				28 August.	11	8	6
				10 September.	11	8	9
5	25	8	102165	26 September.	10	7	
6	6	30	102275	10 October.	11	2	3
				25 October.	10	4	8
				8 November.	11	5	
				23 November.	12	6	
8	28	20	106425				
9	10	2	97717	22 January.	13	2	8
				6 February.	10	10	
				21 February.	12	7	9
				8 March.	9	8	4
				22 March.	10	10	4
				6 April.	10	6	3
11	28	56	101725	20 April.	11	6	3
0	12	40	100856	7 May.	11	6	
				20, 21 May.	11	4	

After ascertaining the retardation of the tides in the new and full moons, and quadratures, we examined all the observations at *Havre de Grace*, and found that the mean retardation of the tide from one day to another was almost perfectly the same with that observed at *Dunkirk*; so that the same rule may serve for finding the time of high water every day in the year, in both those ports. We have also drawn up a table of these retardations like that given for *Dunkirk*, by means whereof it may be found, whether the ebbing and flowing follow the same rule in other ports.—In order hereto, the mean time of the tide must be settled in each port, for the days of new and full moon, and quadratures for the rest, the rules will obtain already prescribed.

The tides in this table are marked for every 12 hours after full moon, for the conveniency of finding the morning and evening tides.

<p>9^h 26' M. mean time of the high tide at <i>Havre</i>, the day of the new and full moons.</p>	<p>2^h 40' E. mean time of the high tide at <i>Havre</i>, the days of the the quadratures.</p>
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*A TABLE of the retardation
of the tides.*

Days and hours af- ter new or full moon.			Retarda- tion of the tides.	Dif.	Days an hours af- ter first or last quarter.			Retarda- tion of the tides.	Dif.
D.	H.		H. M.	M.	D.	H.		D. H.	M.
0	0		0	0	26	0	0	0	0
	12		0	26	24		12	0	32
1	0		0	50	21	1	0	1	8
	12		1	11	19		12	1	49
2	0		1	30	18	2	0	2	32
	12		1	48	18		12	3	11
3	0		2	6	18	3	0	3	44
	12		2	24	18		12	4	14
4	0		2	42	19	4	0	4	40
	12		3	1	20		12	5	4
5	0		3	21	20	5	0	5	28
	12		3	41	21		12	5	50
6	0		4	2	19	6	0	6	12
	12		4	21	18		12	6	34
7	0		4	39		7	0	6	54

Rule first, To find the time of high water at *Havre*, for the days of new and full moon, and quadratures.

Look in the almanack for the time of new and full moon, and quadratures, and take the difference between this and the mean time of high water expressed for the day of that phasis; doubling this difference, you will have the number of minutes to be added to the mean time of high water, if the phasis anticipate such mean time,

time, or be subtracted from the time of the phasis, come behind the same, the result will be the true time of high water for the day of the given phasis, whether it be new or full moon, or one of the quadratures.

For an instance, suppose the time of high water required for the day of new moon in *Jan.* 1702.

In the *Ephemeris* we find new moon marked on the 28th of *January* at $0^h-57'$ in the morning, the difference between $0^h-57'$ in the morning, and $9^h-26'$ in the morning. The mean time of high water at new and full moons in this port is $8^h-29'$, the double whereof, *viz.* $16^h-58''$ is the number to be added to $9^h-26'$. The mean time of high-water at *Havre* on account of the full moon's anticipating the time of high water the sum, *viz.* $9^h-43'$ is the true time of high water on the 28th of *January*, 1702. M. du Bocage observed it $9^h-45'$.

Rule 2d. To find the time of high water at *Havre* for any given day.

Seek by the first rule the time of high water, for the day of new and full moon, or quadrature, next preceding the given day; to this add the retardation of the tide corresponding to the difference between the given day, and the day of the preceding phasis, the sum will be the time of high water for the day required.

For an instance; suppose the time of high water required for the first of *Feb.* 1702.

By the *Ephemeris* the phasis immediately preceding the first of *February*, is new moon, which happens on the 28th of *January*, 1702, at $0^h-57'$ in the morning; four days before the day given, the time of high water that day is found in the preceding example to happen at $9^h-43'$ in the morning; add to this $2^h-42'$ for

the retardation corresponding to 4 days, the sum will be the time of high water on the given day, viz. $0^h-25'$ in the evening. M. du Bocage found it that day at $0^h-15'$ in the evening.

To find the time of high water immediately preceding, or following a time thus found, we must subtract or add the difference in the table corresponding to 12^h .——We may likewise apply to *Havre de Grace* the three last rules laid down for finding the highest and lowest tides at *Dunkirk*.

As the interval between the new and full moons, and quadratures, there is from 6 days to 8, it follows, that when this interval is 6 days, the retardation of the tide between one day and another, must be greater than when the interval is 8 days.——And hence for the greater accuracy, we have framed a table wherein the retardation of the tide is assigned according to those different intervals.

A TABLE of the retardation of the tides.

Days and hours after the new or full moon.	Interval between the day of the new or full moons, and the days of the quadratures.									
	6 Days.		7 Days.		8 Days.					
	Retardation of the tides.									
D. H.	H. M.	D	H. M.	D	H. M.	D				
0 0	0 0	29	0 0	27	0 0	25				
12	29	25	27	24	25	22				
1 0	54	22	51	22	47	20				
12 1	16	21	13	20	7	18				
2 0	37	21	33	20	25	17				
12 1	58	20	53	19	42	16				
3 0	18	20	12	19	58	16				
12 2	38	20	31	19	14	17				
4 0	58	22	50	20	31	19				
12 3	20	23	10	22	50	20				
5 0	43		32	24	10	21				
12			56	27	31	22				
6 0			23		53	23				
12					16					
7 0					39					

Days and hours after the quadra- tures.	Interval between the day of the new or full moons, and the day of the quadratures.		
	6 Days.	7 Days.	8 Days.

Retardation of the tides.

D.	H.	M.	D.	H.	M.	D.	H.	M.	D.
0	0	0	0	0	0	31	0	0	29
	12	0	37	0	31	35	0	29	33
1	0	1	16	1	6	41	1	2	40
	12	1	58	1	47	45	1	42	44
2	0	2	42	2	32	44	2	26	45
	12	3	26	3	16	34	3	11	34
3	0	4	3	3	50	27	3	45	27
	12	4	32	4	17	25	4	12	25
4	0	4	58	4	42	23	4	37	22
	12	5	22	5	5	23	4	59	23
5	0	5	46	5	28	25	5	22	25
	12			5	53	25	5	47	27
6	0			6	18	25	6	14	27
	12						6	41	27
7	0						7	8	27
	12								

To make use of this table, we find in the *Ephemeris* the numbers of days between the phasis immediately preceding, and that succeeding the given day, and take the retardation of the tide expressed in the column under that number of days.

For an instance; suppose the time of high water required for the 1st of *February*, 1702, which is the instance proposed under the 2d rule.—The *Phasis* next preceding the 1st of *February*, is the new moon of the 28th of *January*; and the phasis following it, is the first quadrature which happens on the 5th of *February*; the interval between these two phases is 8 days: seek under the column

marked a-top with 8 days, the retardation answering to 4 days, which is 2 hours 31 ; add this to $9^h-43'$ (the time of high water on the day of the preceding new moon found by the rule) and the sum will give the time of high water on the 1st of *February*, 1702, at $0^h-14'$ in the evening within a minute of what was actually observed.

XII. *Reflections on the observations of the tides made at Brest, and at Bayonne, by M. Cassini, the son. **

Having found, that the observations of the flux and reflux of the sea, made at *Dunkirk*, and *Havre de Grace* agree, so that we may use the same rules to find in both these ports the time of high water, for every day in the year, precisely enough. We have thought proper to examine if these rules agreed with the observations upon the tides made at *Brest* and *Bayonne*, by Mess. *de la Hire* and *Picard*.

These observations are related in the collection of the travels of the academy ; they were made at *Brest*, in *September* 1679, in the king's garden, which has a view to the port where the sea is commonly very calm.

Mess. *de la Hire* and *Picard* observed there, from the 18th to the 28th of *September*, the time of high and low water. They did not wait to make their observations, till the tide was entirely high or low, because then it remains too long in that state ; but they marked 2 distant times before and after, in which they found it at a certain exact

* Aug. 16, 1710.

height, which lasted so little, that they made no difficulty to mark even to seconds. They afterwards took the middle of the time which passed between the corresponding observations.

In comparing at first the retardation of the tide, from the 18th to the 19th of *September*, they found it 48' equal to the mean motion of the moon. This retardation is afterwards a little less to the 26th of the same month; but from the 26th to the 28th, it is excessive, there having been from the 26th to the 27th, a retardation in the time of high water of $1^h 9' 45''$, and from the 27th to the 28th of $1^h 30' 30''$.

As the rules, that we have prescribed to find the time of high water at *Dunkirk* and *Havre de Grace*, require the knowing the days and hours of the new and full moons, and of the quadratures, we have examined the days of the moon, upon which these observations have been made, and have found in the *Connoissance des Temps* of 1679, that the moon was at the full on the 20th of *Sept.* at $7^h 48'$ in the morning; and in the last quarter, the 26th, at $7^h 4'$ at night. The 20th of *Sept.* the day of the full moon, the height of the tides was not observed there: but by the comparison of some observations that were made the preceding and following days, we see that it must have happened about 4 in the evening. We find afterwards, that the retardations of the tides was in diminishing, and pretty near agree with that which results from the rule; but from the 26th to the 28th, the daily retardation was greater, as it ought to happen according to the rule. For the last quarter of the moon being the 26th, it ought to have a retardation from the 26th to the 27th of $1^h 8'$, and from the 27th to

the 28th, of 1^h 24', within a few minutes of what was observed from the 26th to the 27th of 1^h 10', and from the 27th to the 28th of 1^h 30' 30".

For the more easy comparing the rule with the observations, we have prepared the following table ; where there is marked in the first column, the day of the observation ; in the second, the time of the high or low water, determined by the observation ; in the third and fourth, the time calculated according to the first and second table ; and in the fifth and sixth, the difference between the time observed, and the time calculated according to the first and second table of the retardation of the tides.

A TABLE of the tides observed at Brest.

1679.	Time of the high or low-water observed.						Time calculated.		Diff. by the first table.	Diff. by the second table.
							By the first table.	By the second table.		
September.										
Days.	H.	M.	S.				H. M.	H. M.	M.	M.
18	2	25	30	E.	H. W.					
19	3	13	30	E.	H. W.					
1 moon 7 hours minutes, 20							4 2 E.	4 2		
21	10	29	30	M.	L. W.		10 40	10 43	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
22	11	41	45	E.	L. W.		11 41	11 49	0 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{4}$
24	0	25	30	M.	L. W.		0 17	0 30	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
	0	46	30	E.	L. W.		0 35	0 50	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
25	1	12	30	M.	L. W.		0 53	1 11	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
	1	34	30	E.	L. W.		1 13	1 34	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	0 $\frac{1}{2}$
Quarter at hours 4/8 night. 26	1	56	40	M.	L. W.		1 53	1 53	3 $\frac{2}{3}$	3 $\frac{2}{3}$
	8	6	45	M.	H. W.		8 6 45	8 6, 45	0	0
27	3	38	30	M.	L. W.		2 57	2 54	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	44 $\frac{1}{2}$
	9	16	30	M.	H. W.		9 15	9 9	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
	10	9	30	E.	H. W.		9 56	9 49	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$
28	10	47	0	M.	H. W.		10 39	10 33	8	14

Reflections upon the observations of the tides made at Bayonne.

The observations upon the flux and reflux of the sea, are made at *Bayonne*, by Mess. *de la Hire* and *Picard*, the *Dour*, where the sea rises considerably.

They observed in the same manner, that they had done *Brest*, the preceding year, the time of high and low water from the 12th of *Sept.* 1680, to the 4th of *Oct.* following.

To

To be able to compare the rule of the retardation of the tides with the observations, they first sought in the *Connoissance des Temps* of 1680 the days and hours of the *phases* of the moon, and they found that the moon entered the last quarter the 15th of *September*, 1680, at 1^h 4' in the morning; that the new moon following happened on the 22d at 7^h 30' in the evening; and that the first quarter happened on the 30th of *September* 11^h 4' in the evening.

It follows then from the rule that to begin from the 15th of *September*, the day of the last quarter there ought to have been a great retardation in the tide from one day to another, during 3 or 4 days; that from the 22d of *September* the day of the new moon to the 30th of *September*, the day of the last quarter, there had been an acceleration in the tides, and that from the 30th of *September*, to the 4th of *October*, there ought to have been a retardation in the tide, which entirely agrees with the observations.

This conformity of the rule of the retardation of the tides, with the observations, has given us room to examine, whether they agree in all the circumstances. For this is supposed, that the high water happens at *Bayonne*, the day of the new and full moon at 3^h 30', the same that is marked in the *Connoissance des Temps*. The interval between the time of the tides from the new or full moon to the quadratures, being 5^h 14', as they found at *Havre*, we shall have the time of high water in the quadratures, at *Bayonne*, at 8^h 44'. Upon these *hypotheses* they have calculated by the rules prescribed in the preceding memoir, the time of the high or low water in the observations made at *Bayonne*, since the 15th of *Sept.* and they have marked them in the table subjoined,

with the differences, which are for the most part so all, that we could never have hoped to have been able arrive at so great an exactness.

A table of the tides observed at Bayonne.

1680.	Times of high and low water observed.				Time calculated.		Diff. by the first table.	Diff. by the second table.
					By the first table.	By the second table.		
September.								
Days.	H.	M.	S.		H.	M.	M.	M.
12	0	1	0	M. L. W.				
	0	24	30	E. L. W.				
13	0	43	0	M. L. W.				
	1	8	45	E. L. W.				
14	1	34	30	M. L. W.				
	2	0	30	E. L. W.				
quarter, h. 4 m.	2	35	30	M. L. W.	2	38		
	3	8	15	E. L. W.	3	8		
15	9	20	45	E. H. W.	9	23	2	2
	3	44	0	M. L. W.	3	39	5	6
16	9	57	0	M. H. W.	9	55	2	3
	10	40	30	E. H. W.	10	31	9	11
18	0	13	30	E. H. W.	0	34	20	23
	1	14	0	M. H. W.	1	7	7	1
19	1	43	0	E. H. W.	1	37	6	3
	2	7	30	M. H. W.	2	3	4	2
20	2	33	0	E. H. W.	2	27	6	5
	8	42	0	E. L. W.	8	39	3	2
21	2	54	0	M. H. W.	2	51	3	1
	9	4	30	M. L. W.	9	2	2	0
	3	14	50	E. H. W.	3	13	2	3
	9	23	0	E. L. W.	9	23	0	1

A TABLE of the tides observed at Bayonne

1680.	Time of the high and low water observed.	Time calculated.		Diff. by the first table.	D. by the second table.
		By the first table.	By the second table.		
September.					
Days.	H. M. S.	H. M.	H. M.	M.	
Full moon at 7 hours,	9 39 0 M. L. W.	9 10	9 10	29	
30 minutes,	9 56 30 E. L. W.	9 35	9 35	21	
E. 22					
23	10 11 30 M. L. W. 10 25 0 E. L. W.	10 1 10 22	9 58 10 19	11 3	
24	10 47 0 M. L. W. 11 2 30 E. L. W.	10 43 11 1	10 38 10 56	4 1	
25	11 19 30 M. L. W. 11 32 0 E. L. W.	11 19 11 37	11 12 11 28	0 5	
26	11 50 0 M. L. W.	11 55	11 45	5	
27	0 7 0 M. L. W. 0 23 30 E. L. W.	0 13 0 33	0 2 0 22	6 9	
28	0 35 30 M. L. W. 0 59 30 E. L. W.	0 53 1 13	0 42 1 3	18 13	
1st quarter, the 30th of Sept. at 11 h. 4 min. E. 29	1 14 30 M. L. W.	1 31	1 26	17	
October.					
1	3 19 0 M. L. W. 9 30 0 M. H. W. 10 3 30 E. H. W.	2 55 9 11 9 47	2 55 9 8 9 41	24 19 16	
2	10 52 30 M. H. W. 11 22 0 E. H. W.	10 28 11 11	10 21 11 5	24 11	
3	0 5 0 E. H. W.	11 50	11 50	15	
4	0 27 0 M. H. W. 1 35 30 E. H. W.	0 22 0 54	0 24 0 51	5 41	

XIII. *An examination of the silk of spiders, by M. de Reaumur**; translated by Mr. Chambers.

The publick dislike had long lain heavy on the spider, and notwithstanding so many curious things published of it by several learned men, it was still looked upon with some degree of horror, and held a dangerous, or at least a useless insect, till a year ago, that M. Bon, first president of the chamber of accounts at *Montpellier*, procured it a more favourable regard. There is room to hope, that the extraordinary things he has shewn of it, may be turned to some advantage; since, like the silk-worm, it spins a silk, capable of being made into the finest works; of which the gloves and stockings he then presented to the royal academy of *Montpellier*, are an incontestible proof. A like present of gloves has been since made to the royal academy of *Paris*; where the discovery, having some air of usefulness, was thought worth the pursuing; either that the publick might reap the fruit thereof, or at least that the infamy might be removed of neglecting any thing that might be beneficial. The fate of the silk of worms is notorious, which tho' known had remained almost useless for many ages; and it had been inexcusable to let the silk of spiders run the same fortune.

The academy therefore thought fit to depute two members, to pursue what M. Bon had so ingeniously hinted; and I was one of those the choice fell upon. I accepted it accordingly, not only as the publick good seemed concerned therein, but our illustrious president, the *Abbé Bignon*,

* Nov. 12, 1710.

seemed kindly to interest himself in behalf of the poor spiders.

To go orderly to work, I held it my chief business to consider the silk of spiders, with regard to that of worms, in order to find by this comparison, whether the new silk would be of any service, answerable to what we receive from the old ; for it was no longer any question, whether the spiders spin at certain times a sort of silk fit for manufacturing ; this had already been demonstrated by M. *Bon*, past all exception ; but whether they spin a silk that may be of advantage to the publick ? To determine this, 'tis not enough to find the secret of feeding and bringing up spiders, as some learned men have supposed, but to find whether, granting this secret known, the spider silk will come as cheap as the other ; or, in case it be dearer, whether this inconvenience be compensated by any other advantage : These two points were what I chiefly aimed at in my inquiry, and to these all I shall offer in the ensuing discourse is reducible.

The artifice, which spiders make use of to catch flies, has taught all the world that they feed on those insects ; but 'tis obvious, that there is no feeding a number of spiders, sufficient to furnish a silk manufacture with flies. What stratagem must be used to take the daily quantity of flies necessary for such purpose ? and tho' the method of catching flies was never so much improved, what better should we be, when 'tis visible, that all the flies in the kingdom would hardly supply spiders enough to make even an inconsiderable quantity of silk, as may be easily inferred from what we have to urge upon our second article.

Recourse therefore must be had to some new food, whereof a sufficient quantity may commodiously

diouſly be had. Now the rapacious diſpoſition of the ſpider is a ſufficient indication, that this is not to be had from plants, and that neither their flowers, leaves, nor fruits can afford them a proper nutriment. I did not omit, however, to try ſuch foods, leaſt I ſhould have it to reproach myſelf with neglecting any thing, and becauſe I was aware, that in matters of experiment, things frequently happen otherwiſe than was expected; but nothing I could give them of this kind proved any food at all.

Yet 'tis viſible, that flies are not the only food as may ſupply them; for tho' the houſe and garden ſpiders live chiefly thereof, yet I have frequently obſerved them fall with equal appetite upon other inſects, which happen to be caught in their toils; and the ſpiders in particular, which inhabit the holes of old walls, had made me further ſenſible, that no inſect comes amiſs to them; for, upon viſiting their cells, I have uſually found the carcaſſes of diſerſe kinds of inſects therein, as millepedes, caterpillars, butterflies, &c.

My buſineſs therefore ſeemed to be to find ſome inſect, whereof there is ſtore enough to be eaſily had, and nothing but earth-worms appeared to anſwer this view; as to quantity, the gardens and fields are full of them; witneſs the allies of gardens, which, after a rainy night, are covered over with little round bits of earth, each-whereof covers a hole, at which an earth worm had aroſe, nor is there any difficulty in taking them, provided you go in the night with a candle, and remember never to ſeek for them after a fit of dry weather.

'Tis true, I have never found any earth-worms in ſpiders webs, or holes, but this was no great objection, conſidering the weight of the inſect,

and its keeping altogether on the ground, which makes it impossible for the worm ever to come within the spider's clutches. In effect, my expectation was answered ; for shutting up several large spiders of diverse kinds, which had over-lived the winter, and given them pieces of worms to feed on, they were preserved alive thereby.

But it was by no means enough to convince me, that this food was proper for spiders, to find them live several months without any other ; an experiment, I had formerly made, rendered this very precarious, having kept a house spider alive above 3 months, without any food at all. 'Tis known besides, that the young spiders, hatched in *September*, lived 8 or 9 months without eating.

But as I had inclosed my spiders in boxes, covered with glass, I could easily observe whether they meddled with the food that was given them, and accordingly have frequently seen them attack pieces of worms, which would stir, notwithstanding their separation from the rest of the body, after the like manner as we find them attack insects, which have some strength still left, after being taken prisoners in their nets, the various motions of the pieces of worms having served to stir up these insects of prey. It must be added, that they maintained their bulk and vivacity, which those I had left without food did not ; and what is still more decisive, several of them made balls or cods, and laid eggs therein.

I afterwards tried other kinds of foods, to see whether they might not be equally proper for them ; for how commodious soever worms might be, flesh would have been still more so : but I found, that they did not affect it, and that if it fell in their way, they rarely fastened on it. The
reason

reason may be, that the fierce and rapacious disposition of the spider, must be urged and excited by living animals.

Yet I bethought myself of another food, which might make up this defect, by the exquisiteness of its taste, the young spiders, which have just left their cods, preferring it to all others; but what determined me to use it, was the resemblance it bore to the tender flesh of insects, which the spiders delight in, I mean the substance, which fills the feathers of young birds, before they be arrived at their full growth. 'Tis known, that upon plucking such feathers, they are bloody at the end, and that their quill or barrel is soft; so that either squeezing, or cutting it up, we find it repleat with a soft substance, interspersed with numerous vessels, which discharge blood upon cutting them; having plucked such feathers from young pidgeons, and even old ones, which had sometime ago been stripped of the large feathers of their tail and wings, I divided them into little pieces, a line, or $\frac{1}{2}$ a line long, and thus threw them to the spiders, who seemed well pleased therewith, and especially the young ones; so that I could see 5 or 6 clusters of them about a single piece, each of them sucking at the side it was cut on.

Thus far things succeeded to my wish, proper foods being found out, which alone seemed wanting; and 'tis likely other equally commodious ones might be discovered, even among the insect-kind, tho' what we have already proposed is easier to come at than the leaves of mulberries, wherewith silk worms are fed. It may be had without any trouble in all countries, and without running any danger from sharp winters. The poulterers will furnish young feathers enough, or
they

they may be had by breeding up chickens, or pidgeons, and pulling off their feathers from time to time, which will not hinder their laying eggs, and bringing young ones, as I have found by experience; but it will appear from what follows, that a large deduction is to be made, when we come to raise spiders enough to furnish a silk manufacture.

As soon as the young spiders quit the silken ball they were inclosed in, they appear perfectly at peace, and work in concert upon the same web, some of them spreading new threads over those already drawn by others; but such union does not hold long. I had distributed 4 or 5 thousand spiders, just fresh from their balls, into several boxes, putting 2 or 3 hundred in some, and one hundred, or fifty, even less in others. The boxes were about the length and breadth of a card, and were as high, and as wide, which was room enough for such little animals. Finding them gather upon the glass, which covered the boxes, I made an aperture in each about a line below the glass, and thrust a card through the same, which rested on the width of the box, and stopped the aperture close enough to prevent the spiders escaping. On this card, I laid such food as I had found suitable for them, disposing it so near the glass, or upper surface of the box, that the spiders might have their food at hand; and to make those at the bottom, or on the sides of the box, go in quest of it, I had taken care to punch store of holes in the card; by this means a great number of spiders might be fed in a very little time; for the first days one might see them fall on their food with eagerness, several of them fastening upon the same bit of feather.

But

But their natural fierceness soon declared itself ; the biggest and strongest took a liking to eat the smaller and weaker sort. In effect, every time I viewed them, I could see some little one, which had fallen a prey to another somewhat bigger ; so that in a short time there was scarce one or two left in a box.

I knew that the large spiders sometimes fight together, when they chance to meet, but was of opinion that they would grow more sociable by being bred together, as we find the chickens and turkies, raised in the same yard, live amicably enough, tho' they always make war upon new comers. But the truth is, these young spiders devour each other much more than the big ones : whether it be that these last stand less in need of food, or that being heavier, and more bulky, they do not care to stir.

This inclination of the spiders to eat one another, is, in some measure, the cause that their number is so small, considering the prodigious quantity of eggs they lay. 'Tis true, there are several sorts of insects that prey upon them. *Pliny* mentions some species of hornets and lizards, which make them their ordinary food. I have seen the little brown wall lizard catch them, with infinite address ; but notwithstanding all this, we should find them incomparably more numerous were it not for their eating one another.

No other way therefore seems left for bringing up spiders, but to lodge them separately. One may provide, for instance, boxes, which are subdivided into several little apartments, forming so many distinct cells, which I have practised accordingly ; but to give each spider its food apart, would occasion an expence very disproportionate to the profit accruing from them. This, however,

however, might be bore withal, were not the silk of worms to be had on better terms.

I am sensible, that ways might be found of abridging this trouble of giving them food, and even have contrived some myself, which I do not think necessary to describe here; but do what you will, 'tis still to be feared, that much more time will be employed therein than is necessary to give silk-worms their food.

The distributing the spiders into separate cells, does likewise draw on a new difficulty, which greatly lessens the advantage they have over silk-worms in point of fecundity; for the benefit of this cannot be had without keeping a large number of eggs, which have been fecundified by copulation, nor is this practicable without putting spiders together. I am sensible there is a time when a milder fermentation of juices divests these animals of their natural fierceness, and that they may then be put together without danger; but how shall we know this precise time, which withal is to be a little before that when they are disposed to lay eggs? It would be easy finding, whether they lay all their eggs nearly on the same days of the year; but there are several months difference between the times when some lay from that of others.

The fecundity of spiders is prodigious, as is fully set forth by *M. Bon*; but, after all, the like may be said of silk-worms, even tho' we should only suppose them to lay about a hundred eggs, whereof hardly 40 afford worms that make their balls; whereas spiders lay 6 or 7 hundred, and yet all the silk-worms I have brought up on this occasion, yielded at least 3 or 4 hundred eggs a-piece. 'Tis obvious therefore that the number of silk-worms might be multiplied, as much as we
pleased,

pleased, did that only depend on the quantity of their eggs, as abundantly appears from the large stock of silk they now produce in *Europe*, where anciently there were no worms at all; it would be easy therefore in course of time to have a quantity of silk-worms, as much surpassing those we now have, as these surpass that little number first brought from the east; but what hinders us from increasing our stock is the trouble of lodging, feeding, and attending them; for if the quantity of silk was increased, its price would be diminished, and, in that case, would not pay the charges of raising the worms. Silk-worms therefore seem clearly to have the advantage over spiders, as to the facility of raising them; so that we are to have no great expectations from the new silk, unless it have some other advantage over the old, either in respect of beauty, strength, or the quantity it yields, which makes our second article of inquiry.

As all the sorts of spiders do not afford a silk capable of being manufactured, and as those which do furnish such silk, only spin it to form balls, or cods, wherein to lay the eggs; for as to the webs they make to catch insects, they are usually too fine for any purposes of ours, it seems necessary to give a general idea of several species of spiders, to which all the rest are reducible, and of the different manner wherein their several balls are formed, in order to shew which of them afford silk to the best advantage in these countries.

M. Bon, who has likewise considered spiders, with regard to their silk, reduces them to two principal kinds, *viz.* the long-legged spiders and the short-legged ones, which last, he informs us, alone furnished the new silk; but this division, which would have great advantages, on account

of its simplicity, scarce seems sufficient to distinguish the silk spiders from others: for how shall we know precisely which to call short-legged spiders, and which long-legged ones? There are spiders, whose legs are of a middle size, between the longest and shortest, and on the which of the two kinds are these to be ranged? On the footing of the former division, it would be difficult to decide whether they yield a silk or not; but this is not the worst, for the division would be apt to lead people into useless pains, the generality of spiders, which, according to this, should promise most silk, yielding none at all. Such are the several kinds of wandering spiders, and the large brown spiders inhabiting the holes of old walls, whose legs are shorter than most of those which yield silk, though they yield none themselves.

I rather choose to range all spiders under two classes; the first including the several species, comprized by M. *Homberg*, under the general name of wandering spiders, being such as do not lay nets for catching of insects, but roam abroad in quest of them. These spiders spin but little, and this only to make a cod, or cover, for their eggs, which some of them make hemispherical, and leave it hung upon stones, or hid under ground, or even upon trees, or among herbs; others give it the figure of a ball, and are too fond ever to stir from it, but carry it about with them, always hanging to the *papillæ* about their *anus*, in such manner that the ball only seems to make one body with the spider; which, upon this occasion, appears a little bigger than it should do. Catching one of them, and taking its ball away, you will see the spider resume it, as soon as set at liberty, with great eagerness, taking it in its feet, and clapping it first
under

under its belly, and here letting us into the artifice it uses in its ordinary carriage; for bending its hind part till it reach the little ball, and then rubbing the same ball very swiftly with the *papille*, a viscid liquor is prest out of the same, and smeared over part of the ball, which by this means is stuck fast to the *papillæ*. The parts thus rubbed are easily distinguished, as being whiter, and closer than the rest; nor does the animal's tenderness end here, but when its young ones are hatched, it bears them on its back, where the young spiders likewise discover a notable dexterity in their arrangement about their mother's body, being such, that there is no perceiving them when she walks, only her body, upon this occasion, appears somewhat rougher than usual.

The texture of the balls of this kind of spiders, is very close, and usually white or greyish; but, beside that it only yields very little silk, what it does yield, is not fit for manufacturing.

The second class includes all the spiders, which lay nets for catching insects. These I divide into four principal kinds, each whereof might be subdivided into several species, if an exact history of spiders were intended: the first kind contains all the spiders which make webs of a close texture, and stretch them as parallelly to the horizon, as the weight of the web will admit. Such are the house spiders, which lay their webs in the corners of rooms, and some species of garden spiders, which make like webs, and placed after the like manner as those of house spiders.

These all of them inclose their eggs, which stick a little to one another, in a sort of web, not unlike either as to strength or colour. The common ones they lay for flies; so that we have but little to expect from these towards a silk manufacture.

The second kind includes the spiders, which inhabit the holes of old walls. These line the wall all around their hole with a web, and within the hole itself, make another web of a tubular figure, by which they enter and come out of their holes; but neither is the ball, wherein these spiders inclose their eggs, any stronger than their common web; so that these two are out of the question.

In the third kind I rank all the spiders, whose nets have no proper texture resembling that of a web, but consist only of a number of threads stretched every way. This kind might be subdivided into a great number of species, which form their balls in different manners; some make them segments of a sphere, and fasten the flat side to a leaf, and the firmness wherewith they brood over them is invincible; for notwithstanding their natural fierceness, if the leaf be taken away this ball is fastened on, the mother spider will go with it, and never leave it, unless by force, till the young ones are hatched. These balls are very white, and of a close texture; others make two or three little ruddy balls, and lay their eggs therein, hanging them up by threads in some open place, but taking care to cover them with dry leaves, to prevent passengers from seeing them; to this purpose hanging their leaves upon thread at some distance from the ball; others make their ball of a pear form, and hang it by a thread, like the pear suspended by its pedicle.

These balls are all of a close texture, but their silk too weak for working; perhaps, those in the pear form might be of some use; but they are so small, and consequently contain so little silk, as scarce to be worth minding.

Lastly,

Lastly, the fourth kind includes those spiders, which make webs consisting of several threads, all placed in the same plane, and proceeding from the same point, like so many *radii* of a circle, which terminate in its circumference. Across all these threads, goes another thread, which winding spirally, is fastened in diverse places upon each thereof. These webs are usually perpendicular to the horizon. M. *Homborg* calls this sort the garden spider; and accordingly we find it very common among wood, bushes, &c. Under it are included several species of spiders, different in size, colour and shape.

These spiders lay their eggs one upon another, in such manner that the mass they compose, has the figure of a flatted sphere, or rather an elliptic spheroid. Some of them glue their eggs to one another, by a viscous matter wherewith they are moistened, when they come from the body; but those of others are left loose. The inmost threads, which invest these eggs, are wound closer than the rest, which are but loosely twisted, much like the outward threads of the balls of silk worms.

Most of these species of spiders spin a silk, which is fit for manufacturing; tho' what some of them may afford is too weak to sustain a common loom.

Spider silks may be had of more diversity of colours than that of worms, which is always white or yellowish; whereas the spiders balls, besides white and yellow, afford sky blue, brown, and a fine coffee colour.

The spiders, which yield the coffee-coloured silk, are very scarce, at least I have met with none, but in a few broom fields, where I likewise found some of their balls, the silk whereof
is

is very strong and beautiful. They are formed after a different manner from all the spider balls above-mentioned; the eggs are inclosed in a brown silk loosely wound over them as in other balls; but this brown silk is itself inclosed in another ball of greyish silk, whose texture is very thick and close, and much like what remains of a silk worm ball, when part of it has been wound off.

The spiders lay eggs, and spin silk to inclose them in several months of the year, not only in *August* and *September*, as *M. Bon* has observed; but some of them likewise in *May*, and others in the following months, those which lay so early are such as have survived the winter; whereas those *M. Bon* speaks of, are only hatched in the spring, and consequently lay their eggs much later than the former.

Spiders, we have already shewn, spin two kinds of threads; one serving for a web wherewith to catch insects; and the other only as a cod, or case, to keep their eggs in; but it may be proper here to add, that the two threads only differ from each other by their greater or less strength: and to explain how the spider is able to spin a thread of this or that degree of strength at pleasure, we suppose it already known, that near the *anus* of the spider are several *papillæ*, which do the office of a wiew-drawer's iron, and mould or fashioned the liquor, which passing through them, and afterwards drying, becomes the silk. The spiders, we have here to do withal, *viz.* those which afford a silk proper for manufacturing, have 6 such *papillæ*, 4 of them very sensible, and two scarce visible without a magnifier, being placed near the bases of the two large *papillæ* nearest the *anus*. Each of the

6 visible ones is itself composed of other less and invisible ones, as may easily be shewn, by squeezing the belly of a spider between two fingers, till the liquor in the *papillæ* begin to issue forth, and then applying another finger upon one of them, for drawing it gently away again, several threads will follow it, all of them visibly distinct from each other, from their very rise, and which of consequence must have pass'd thro' different holes. These threads are too fine to be well told; yet this I can affirm, that I have frequently seen above 8 or 10 spring from a single *papilla*. In effect, more or fewer of such threads are drawn from a *papilla*, according as the finger is pressed stronger, or upon a larger part of its end; whence it is easy to conceive how the spider makes its thread finer or stronger at discretion; since not only the applying more of the 6 visible *papillæ* against a solid body, but even applying them more forcibly, or a larger part of each produces a thread, consisting of a greater number of other threads, and consequently bigger and stronger.

There must be about 18 times as many threads, such as they issue from the holes of the *papillæ*, to make one of the threads of a ball, as a thread of a web. If the quantity of threads, which go to the one and the other, be proportional to the strength; for a weight of 3 grains, hung to one of the threads of a web, usually breaks it, whereas 40 grains will not break a thread of their ball.

But if these threads of the spider's ball be stronger than those of its web, they are weaker than those of the silk-worm's ball, tho' in a less proportion. A thread wound from one of these last balls will usually sustain 2 drams and $\frac{1}{2}$; and consequently a thread of a spider's ball is, to that of a silk worm's ball, about as 1 to 5, which seems

seems to be another advantage of the ancient silk above the new.

Indeed each thread of a spider's ball is slenderer than that of a silk-worm's ball, nearly in the same proportion as it is weaker ; but this hardly makes up for the disadvantage, since the more threads, the more difficulty there is in joining them ; to say nothing of the danger, that all the threads do not draw alike, and consequently that their assemblage have not the sum of the strengths each thread would have a part. This multiplicity of lesser threads, which compose each thread of a spider's silk, to make it as thick as that of a silk-worm, may likewise contribute to render such works as are made of this silk less glossy than those of common silk ; for what we call gloss or lustre in a stuff, being only the effect of its reflecting more coloured light of any kind than another stuff of the same colour, the more little interstices there is in a thread of silk, the less glossy it must appear, since it will reflect the less light. Now 'tis obvious, that the little interstices will be more numerous in a thread, thus composed of several different ones, than in another thread of the same thickness, wherein there is no distinction ; the parts of the viscid liquor they are formed of, touching each other in more places than several distinct threads can possibly do. Supposing therefore each thread of spider's silk to be of itself equally glossy with that of a silk worm, 'tis certain, that when 5 such threads are combined together, to make another of that natural thickness, of a silk-worm's thread, this compound thread, and the work formed thereof, will be less glossy than those of the common silk-worm.

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This would be true on a supposition that each simple spider's thread is naturally as glossy as a simple filken thread ; but this supposition is, perhaps, too favourable to the spider's silk, for we find, that the more frizled a thread is, the less glossy it is found : thus we see, that wool, whose fibres are naturally more curly than those of silk, is less glossy withal. Now each hair or thread of spider's silk is certainly more frizled, than a hair of the worm's silk, and consequently must have less lustre. The reason of this diversity is evidently owing to the manner of winding, or reeling the two ; for in winding a thread loosely, the springs of all its little parts are left at liberty to act with all their strength ; and thus to bend or curl it this way and that according to their several directions ; whereas, in winding a thread after a closer manner, the action of the spring of the component parts is prevented, and even weakened by the violence of the new situation. This will be more readily allowed if we can consider, that the first threads of a silk-worm's ball, which themselves are twisted in, in a looser manner round the rest, are much less beautiful and glossy than those which form the body of the ball, which are wound very closely.

This same loose manner wherein the spider's threads are wound, contributes on another account to diminish the lustre of the silk they furnish, *viz.* by preventing their being wound, or reeled, as those of silk-worms are ; and obliging the balls to be carded before they be spun : hence it is obvious, that the large threads of silk when they come from the spinner, must consist of an infinite number of short hairs, and consequently cannot appear with the beauty, evenness,

and lustre of another thread of the same thickness, composed only of hairs, equal in length to itself, by reason all the ends of such short hairs must needs produce little inequalities in the compass of the thread, which will weaken its lustre. If any proof of this were needed, it were easy to observe, that the silk even of the silk-worm balls, when carded, is much inferior to that reeled directly from the pods.

Supposing that only two of the *papillæ* had furnished threads to make a spider's web, and that each of those *papillæ*, which usually furnish threads compounded of several others, had only furnished a simple one, the threads of the web being 18 times weaker than those of the ball; this last thread, which we have already observed is 5 times smaller than that of a silk-worm, must consist of 36 hairs or threads at least; this reflection may, perhaps, assist the imagination to conceive the prodigious divisibility of matter; for, how minute must a thread be visible, notwithstanding, to the eye, which is no bigger than the hundred and eightieth part of a single hair of silk, which hair itself is only a two hundredth part of a thread of the finest sewing silk? For I have frequently divided such threads into two hundred lesser ones, so that a thread of spider's silk of the thickness of common sewing silk, must really consist of 36000 threads, and may be actually divided into 1000.

A thread of spider's silk, composed of these 36000 simple threads, may, perhaps, be somewhat bigger than a thread of common silk, composed of 200 simple threads, tho' the sum of the bulks of the 36000 threads, and the 200 be the same, by reason it would be difficult, or perhaps impossible, to arrange such a number of threads together, without leaving several vacuities between

tween them, by which the bulk must be increased; it is for this reason that the spider's silk has been thought to yield more in the working, than the common sort; but if it had been considered, that in return for this, it must be weaker in the same proportion, instead of considering it as an advantage, people would rather have looked on it as a defect, since a large body of this silk will only have the strength of a less body of the other.

We are now come to the last point, *viz.* to consider what relation the quantity of silk each spider will furnish yearly, bears to that procured from a silk worm. By carefully weighing several silk worm balls, I find, that the larger kind weigh 4 grains, and the lesser 3, so that supposing 16 ounces to the pound, at least 2304 worms will be required to produce a pound of silk. A person cloathed in silk little imagines, that several thousand worms have wrought all their life-time to furnish the matter thereof.

I have weighed with equal care, a great number of spider balls, and have always found, that about 4 of the larger sort go to balance one silk-worm ball, and that they weigh about a grain a-piece; so that 4 of the largest spiders would be required to yield as much silk as a single worm affords, supposing there were no more waste in one kind of silk than the other; but in reality the spider balls are liable to a considerable diminution, from which those of the silk-worms are exempted. This diminution arises hence, that the spider balls when weighed, are full of the shells of eggs, from which the young ones have been hatched, together with other kinds of filth; so that calculating the diminution of these balls, we must deduct above two thirds from their weight,

since from 13 ounces of foul spider silk, M. *Bon* only procured 4 ounces of pure silk; whereas silk-worm balls undergo no diminution, or at least so little, that it is compensated by only putting that of spider silk at two thirds of the whole.

It has been already noted, that a spider ball before it be cleansed, is to the weight of a silk-worm ball, as 1 to 4; and therefore when cleansed, its weight will be to that of the other, as 1 to 12; 12 therefore of the largest spiders will only furnish as much silk as one worm; but each worm makes it ball, as being necessary for the metamorphosis it has to undergo; whereas it is otherwise with spiders; for their balls being only made to lay their eggs in. If with the whole current of naturalists before M. *Bon*, we suppose their *species* to consist of males and females, and not as he does, take them for hermaphrodites, only the female spiders must make balls; whence it follows, that supposing the number of males and females nearly equal, 24 of the largest spiders will only afford as much silk as one worm.

No less than 55296 of the largest spiders therefore will be necessary to make a pound of silk, which spiders must have been fed separately for several months. In this view, their silk which seems to cost us much more than it is worth, being at least 24 times as expensive as that procured from worms; and this supposing it were not necessary to keep the spiders a-part; but that each spider would only take up the room of a worm, which however is a false supposition, for there must room enough be allowed each to make its web; if one were to pursue the calculus, therefore, of what this silk would cost, supposing the animals fed separately, and a competent apartment

allowed each, it would evidently appear, that the spider's silk, would cost incomparably more than that of the silk-worm.

Let it be added, that what has been hitherto said, only holds of the largest spiders; for if the estimate were made in the common garden spiders of this country, twelve of them would hardly be found to yield as much silk as one of the balls above-mentioned; 280 of them would only afford the quantity of silk contained in one ball of a silk worm, and consequently 663,552 spiders hardly one pound of silk.

'Twill be thought pity, that such little hope should be left of benefitting by so ingenious a discovery; but there is some prospect of resource; spiders may possibly be found, which shall afford more silk, than those commonly seen in this country. 'Tis confirmed to us, by the accounts of all travellers, that those of *America* are much larger than ours; whence it should likewise follow, that their webs and balls are proportionably larger. The silk-worms, which the natives of far distant countries have multiplied so much in *Europe*, may give us hopes, that the *American* spiders may likewise be propagated here, at least 'tis worth making the experiment, which alone should decide in a thing of this nature; for my own part, nothing that any where relates to the present subject shall be omitted by me; tho' if any thing useful be struck out, the chief glory will be M. *Bon*'s due.

XIV. *Experiments on the effect of the wind with regard to the thermometer, by M. Cassini the son* *.

Among several physical observations, that M. *l'Abbé Teinturier*, the arch-deacon of *Verdun*, has sent me since his return from *Paris*; he has observed that when we raise a wind with bellows against a thermometer, the liquor that is inclosed there in increases its height; which seems contrary to the impression, that the wind makes upon us, which is a sensation of cold.

To examine, if it had the same effect upon our thermometers, I applied a pair of common bellows to a thermometer shut up in a chamber, which in the caves of the observatory, stands at the height of 50 degrees, and was then at 52 degrees; that is, two degrees above temperate; and after having blowed for 7 or 8 minutes against the ball, the thermometer rose 1 degree.

I repeated the same experiment some days after, the thermometer was at 46 degrees, and it rose also a degree in the same time.

I made use of one of M. *Amontons* thermometers, which I had applied to the fire-place of a forge, where there had not been any fire for many years. This thermometer rose almost a line in the space of 6 minutes that I blowed against it.

I at last put the same thermometer to the fire-place of the forge, where I left it for three hours or thereabouts. I afterwards took it away to see at what height it was, which I marked 53 inches, 2 lines $\frac{2}{3}$. I blowed against it for 5 minutes, and taking it away, I found it at the height of 53 in-

* Dec. 13, 1710.

ches,

ches, 4 lines $\frac{1}{3}$; that is, 1 line $\frac{2}{3}$ higher. I put it in its place again directly, and after having blowed for 5 minutes, I found it at 53 inches, 5 lines $\frac{1}{4}$. Having in the last place blowed for 5 minutes more, it rose to the height of 53 inches, 5 lines $\frac{5}{6}$; so that in the space of $\frac{1}{4}$ of an hour, the thermometer rose above 3 lines.

We may offer for a reason of this experiment, that all motion produces heat, and that thus the air being excited with violence, acquires some degree of heat; so in effect, it seems to cause in us a sensation of cold, because the particles of air being driven with violence, apply themselves with more force, and in a greater quantity against our bodies, which are warmer than the air that we breathe.

XV. *Experiments on the thermometer, by M. de la Hire the son**.

My father had formerly observed, that having covered with snow the ball of a spirit of wine thermometer exposed to the air, but not to the wind, the spirit of wine did not alter its height in the tube, and that afterwards having blown with a pair of bellows strongly against this snow, the spirit of wine had remained at the same height; from which it seems, that we might conclude that the temperature of the air, which acts upon the spirit of wine, could not cause any alteration therein, being strongly driven against it; nevertheless it has appeared quite the contrary, by an experiment related to the academy, by M. *Cassini* the son. It is to endeavour to discover the reason of this contrary effect, that we have again made the experiment that he has related, but in diffe-

* Dec. 17, 1710.

rent circumstances, and upon 4 thermometers; 3 of which were spirit of wine, and the 4th an air, one of M. *Amonton*'s.

Nov. 27, 1710, about 11 in the morning, we blowed with a pair of bellows strongly against the ball of a spirit of wine thermometer, exposed for a great many years in the east tower of the observatory, which is uncovered in such a manner, that it is sheltered from the wind, and the spirit of wine, that was at 35 parts in the tube, which marks an air a little warmer than the beginning of frost, having observed, that when it is at 32, it begins to freeze in the country, did not rise sensibly in the tube; we had taken the precaution before we used the bellows to put them for 2 hours in the same place where the thermometer was, for fear that if the whole bellows were a little warmer than the air which enters in, it might grow warm in them, and afterwards meeting the ball of the thermometer might heat it, and make the liquor rise; and on the contrary, if the bellows had been in a place where the air was colder than that where the thermometer was, it might make it fall, as we observed in blowing with the same bellows; and pretty soon after the above experiment, against the ball of another thermometer, which was in my father's closet, where the air was much warmer than the outward air, where these bellows had been exposed; for the liquor presently sunk about $\frac{1}{2}$ a line, and afterwards rose again almost to the same height, altho' we continued blowing.

We have also made another experiment upon an air thermometer, which was one of those that M. *Amontons* first made for the experiment of the heat of boiling water. The ball, which is at the bottom of the little bent tube, is very big, and has

has in its lower part quicksilver enough to furnish the dilatation of the air of the ball, which makes it rise into the tube that is open at the top, and is about 4 feet high, so that the air does not enter at all into the tube.

Nov. 27, 1710, at 4 in the afternoon, the thermometer and the bellows having been in the same place above 5 hours, and having marked exactly the height of the quicksilver in the little tube, we blowed for 3' against the ball filled with air, which was compressed by 25 inches of quicksilver, and we did not observe any alteration of height in the quicksilver that was in the tube.

The next day, at 10 in the morning, we repeated the first experiment upon the thermometer, which is in the east tower, and the spirit of wine did not rise sensibly; there was another spirit of wine thermometer near that, the ball of which was much smaller, and the tube very thin, which we took away and put in a close place just by, where there was a pair of double bellows; and after having left it there 3 or 4 hours, we blowed against this second thermometer for 7', with the double bellows, and the spirit of wine rose 3 lines in the tube.

We afterwards took M. *Amonton's* air thermometer, which had been a great while in this place, and blowed against the ball, with the double bellows for 7' and the quicksilver also rose 3 lines; indeed there were 3 or 4 of us a little distant from the thermometer, during the experiment.

We were afraid, that the number of persons that there were had caused this effect; for this reason we left the thermometers near one another for 2 or 3 hours, and afterwards with a common pair of bellows, we blowed for 3' against each of

the balls of both these thermometers, the spirit of wine and the quicksilver which were fallen again to the heights that they were before the preceding experiment, both rose again about a line, but that of the spirit of wine rather less than the other.

We were afraid it was because we had begun with that of spirit of wine, and that the bellows were heated in our hands; for this reason, we left them in the same position, and the bellows near them, and at 6 at night we blowed again for 3' against both the balls, beginning with the spirit of wine thermometer, which rose a little; but the air one did not rise at all.

We afterwards blowed with the same bellows against the ball of a spirit of wine thermometer of M. *Amontons*, which is placed in my father's closet, where the air was warmer than that where the bellows were, and the spirit of wine rose in the tube $\frac{2}{3}$ of a line, and did not fall at first, as it had done the day before.

The 4th, at 7 in the morning, the air thermometer and the great spirit of wine thermometer, and the bellows having been all night in the east tower, we blowed for 4' against the ball of the air one, and it did not rise at all; we then blowed against the ball of that of spirit of wine, and it rose about a line. Afterwards we blowed for above 4' against the ball of another spirit of wine thermometer, which is smaller, that we had left near the windows of a place just by, which is close and exposed to the south, the holes of the bellows being turned against the windows, the liquor hardly rose at all; but by continuing to blow, with the holes of the bellows turned the other way, it rose more.

At 2 in the afternoon, the same thermometer having remained in the same place, and received
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the impressi^on of the sun for 3 hours and $\frac{1}{2}$, and the bellows being laid in the place upon a seat about 6 feet from the thermometer, the sun having also shined upon them, we blowed against the ball of this thermometer, the liquor fell more than 6 lines, the holes of the bellows not being turned against the windows, but upon turning them against the windows, and continuing to blow, the spirit of wine fell again considerably, tho' the weather was very hot, the sky having been very clear all the day, and the sun shining there during the experiment.

The 5th, in the morning, we carried the air thermometer and the little spirit of wine one into the cave of the observatory, and after having left them there almost $\frac{3}{4}$ of an hour, and the bellows also, and having opened and shut them for some time, that they might take in the same warmth as that of the air of the cave, we blowed for 5' against the ball of the air thermometer, and the quicksilver rose about 3 lines: but as both the thermometers were a foot distant from one another, and as before, we blowed against that of air, we had also observed the height of that of spirit of wine, we perceived that the spirit of wine thermometer was also risen 1 line, altho' it had not been at all blowed against; we afterwards blowed for the same time against that of spirit of wine, and it also rose about 3 lines, during which time the air thermometer did not rise at all.

We had taken the precaution to carry them into the cave, fearing least the light diffused in the air in the day, might make some impressi^on upon it, which had some relation to what happened to the *Bolonian* stone and other *phosphorus*.

Afterwards we applied a piece of cloth two or three times double against the ball of the air ther-

memeter, and blowing violently against it, it rose only one line, and during this time the spirit of wine thermometer, which remained at the same place, rose $\frac{1}{2}$ a line; we afterwards applied the cloth against the spirit of wine thermometer, and having blowed against it for the same time, it rose also $\frac{1}{2}$ a line: but the air thermometer did not rise at all during this time, any more than in the preceding experiment.

Altho' in general, the experiments which we have just related, seem to destroy the old one, that my father had made, they nevertheless furnish a means of giving the reason of explaining the difference found between them.

For the snow, which was upon the ball of the thermometer, and thro' which the air being driven by the bellows passed, was cold enough to chill the particles of air, a little less cold than the snow, which were applied in a large quantity, and in a little time, by the means of the bellows against the ball of the thermometer, and had made the liquor rise. One can hardly doubt, but that this is the true reason of this last experiment, and it seems, by the means of it, we may give the reason for all the differences that we have observed in those that we have made. But before we absolutely decide, we believe it is necessary to wait, till we have made the two following experiments: the first would be to blow against the ball of a thermometer, during a very great cold; and the second, during a very great heat, that we might see, if what should happen in the extreme, was conformable to that which happened in and about the mean state.

The 16th, at 8 in the morning, a spirit of wine thermometer, and some water in a vessel, being put all night in the same place, we put this
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thermometer into the water, and after having left them there a good while, we did not at all observe that the spirit of wine had changed its height in the tube; we afterwards drew the thermometer out of the water, we wetted a cloth in this water, we applied it two or three times double upon the ball of this thermometer, and we blowed strongly with a common pair of bellows against the linnen for 4 or 5', without the spirit of wine changing its height.

Having left the thermometer in this state for an hour, we had a mind to repeat the experiment. We took away the linnen from the ball of the thermometer to make the spirit of wine take the same degree of heat, as the air of the place where it was; and in waiting till it had taken it, we had a mind to see, if, by agitating it in the air, there would not happen the same thing to it as by blowing upon it, which succeeded; for having shaken it strongly in the air for 8', the spirit of wine rose 2 lines in the tube; afterwards having let it rest some time, it did not change the height at all. We afterwards put it for 8' into the same water where it had been at first, and the liquor fell about a line, but this was only during the 4 last minutes; we drew it out of the water and having applied the wet cloth to it, we blowed strongly for 8' against the cloth, and the spirit of wine rose again to the same height that it was at before it had been plunged in the water.

The 17th, at 9 in the morning, the same spirit of wine thermometer having remained all night in the east tower of the observatory, and several pieces of marble which we had put there, we applied them to the ball of this thermometer, and in half an hour the spirit of wine sunk in the
tube

tube above a line, and afterwards continuing to examine it, we perceived that it was a little risen. During this experiment, the great spirit of wine thermometer, which is always in this tower, was risen about 2 lines $\frac{1}{2}$. This experiment would seem to prove, that the marble cooled more than the spirit of wine.

XVI. *Observations on the little eggs of hens without yolk, vulgarly called cock's-eggs, by M. Lapeyronie, of the academy of Montpellier; translated by Mr. Chambers.*

The prejudices of birth and education frequently feed people up in errors, even upon matters of fact, which it is no less incumbent on academies to disabuse them of, than to tell them new truths.

'Tis a common opinion, even among persons of sense, that cocks lay eggs, and that these eggs being hatched in a dunghill, produce serpents with wings, called basilisks*; and what is more, they hold, that the very looks of these basilisks strike people dead; yet the whole fable has
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* *Sunt etiam quædam ova majora, alia minora, alia etiam minima quæ vulgo in Italia Centinina dicuntur & mulieres nostræ hodie (ut olim) a Gallo edita & basiliscus productura fabulantur. Vulgus (inquit Fabricius) putat exiguum hoc ovum esse ultimum Gallinarum, cum jam centum ova gallina pepererit (unde Centininum vocant) quod sine vitello est: habet tamen cætera, ut chalazas, albumen, membranas, & corticem, verisimile enim est tum generari, cum vitelli omnes jam in ova migrarunt, neque amplius in vitellario aliquis superest vitellus, qui in ovum evadere possit: ex altera tamen parte; albuminis adhuc modicum superest: ex hoc enim modico credibile est ovulum propositum creari. Harvæus in tractatu generationis animalium, exercitatione xii. de ovorum differentiis.*

no other ground than an ancient tradition, whose falsity will be demonstrated by the following facts.

A farmer brought me several eggs, one of them bigger than a pidgeon's egg †, assuring me they had been lain by a young cock, which was the only one in his yard, where however there were several hens; of this, he made so little question, that he positively engaged, that in case I would hatch any one of these eggs, a serpent should arise from it; and to convince me of this, he told me, I need only open one of them, which I should find without any yolk, and that in the room of yolk, there would be the visible figure of a serpent.

I opened one of these eggs in the presence of M. *Bon*, and several other persons, who were all equally surprized to find it quite void of yolk, and in lieu of yolk, to discern a body much resembling a little twisted serpent*; which I easily unfolded, after first stiffning its substance in spirit of wine, when it appeared as in *fig. 3*. After this, I opened some others, which, in the main, proved all like the former, with this only difference, that the seeming serpent was not equally well expressed in all. Several of these eggs I shewed the academy; in some of which was seen a yellow round spot about a line in diameter, and without thickness, situate on the membrane next under the shell, directly against the obtuse end of the egg.

The difference between these and the common eggs, which have all a yolk, gave me a curiosity to examine into the matter, being convinced, that if they were lain by a cock, it must have had a peculiar organ for the purpose; and besides the testicles and two yards have been furnished with

† Plate I. Fig. 1.

* Fig. 2.

an ovary and a tube, which must have rendered it an hermaphrodite. This indeed is no more than several animals are in their kind ; and we read so many accounts of such monsters, that there was no great difficulty in supposing, that a cock might chance to be such.

Upon this thought, I opened the young cock, which was supposed to have lain the little eggs, and in the dissection I made of it, found two large testicles, from whence arose very regular feed vessels, which terminated each in their side, with a little yard in the *cloaca*. The cock in fine was found very vigorous, but utterly incapable of laying for want of organs.

Upon this, I procured some of the eggs to be brooded on for hatching ; but opening them after a month's incubation, I could find no alteration in them, excepting that the white was more divided, and also more fluid than usual.

The farmer having now no cock was surprized to find a continuation of the same eggs, and being very solicitous to find whence they should come, watched them so narrowly, that at length he assured me, they were lain by a hen, which he brought me accordingly.

All the time I kept this hen I found it crow very strongly, much like a cock that was hoarse : and that she voided by the *anus* a thin yellowish matter, not unlike the yolk of an egg dilated in water, and she still continued laying little eggs like those I had opened.

Being satisfied of these facts, nothing remained but to discover the cause, which accordingly I sought for in the *viscera* of the hen, and shewed the academy a bladder about the bigness of the fist full of limpid water represented by CCCCC, *fig. 4.* which was fastened by the upper root of its neck

neck G, to the ligament EE, whereby the ovary is fixed to the mouth of the oviduct, and by the lower root to the centre G of the mesentery of the oviduct, which choaked as it were the two parts of the oviduct thus grasped by FF.

This sort of dropfy pinched the two parts FF of the oviduct so close, that their cavity, even when most distended, was not above five lines in diameter; and consequently a common egg, such as they are when they fall into the tube, could not pass without bursting either the oviduct or itself.

The belly was full of a yellow liquor, wherein little concretions were found floating like pieces of hardened yolk, which formed another very singular species of dropfy.

Now the large bladder full of water was the real cause of all these effects.———When an egg grasped by the mouth of the tube became separated from the ovary, and entered into the oviduct, it passed along, tho' with some difficulty, beyond the first choak, but could not get beyond the second, both as it was closer than the first, and by reason the white of the egg had been enlarged by an accession of moisture, furnished from the membranes of the tube it had passed by: thus the egg being imprisoned between the two choaks, irritated the membranes of the tube, which not being able to expel it, redoubled its contractions, and obliged the hen to give itself violent throws and struggles, which it expressed by a sort of cry, imitating, as already has been observed, the crowing of a cock. By these struggles the bladder of water was compressed, and thrust close against its hold; the effect of all which forces was, that the egg, whose membrane was yet very thin, and which have but very little white, and no shell, burst; upon which the yellow run out sometimes

into the abdomen, and sometimes into the anus, according to the situation of the chink, or rupture; and both the one and the other had befallen this hen, as we have already observed.

The bulk of the egg being thus diminished by a loss of a great part of the yolk, came forth notwithstanding the choak, and was at length delivered.

It is observable, that the white surrounding the yolk, filled notwithstanding its being pierced in the part whereat the yolk run out; and consequently its wanting the tension, one would have thought necessary for its growth; for notwithstanding all this, the humour furnished by the membranes of the * oviduct, continued to fill and swell its spongy parts; and in proportion as it swelled, it expressed the remainder of the fluid matter of the yolk, which could not withstand by reason of its issue; and therefore commonly was evacuated almost wholly, only leaving sometimes a few traces in one of the corners of the egg, under the form of a yellow spot. It might sometimes also happen, that a little part of the yolk should be left in a body, though I have never found it so in any eggs I have opened.

* Several persons pretend, that the white of the egg is furnished by the yolk. This observation demonstrates, not only that the yolk is not the source of the white (for how could the yolk, which increases rather than diminishes in the oviduct, be sufficient to produce the whole substance of the white, which is of a much greater dimension than the yolk itself, if it did not receive it elsewhere?) but also that the liquor which makes it, does not pass through the yolk, but after having passed through the exterior membrane of the egg, it enters immediately into the spongy body, where it stops; if this was otherwise, the humour of the white would have flowed together with the yolk, and its sponge would not have increased.

While

While the yolk was emptying, in itself, by little and little, the *Chalazas* ranged themselves differently, according to the place where the egg had burst ; if the rupture were aside of a *Chalaza*, the cells about the opposite *chalaza* swelling, chose the other which fastened itself to the obtuse end of the egg, as meeting there with the least resistance ; accordingly I have frequently found it fastened in this part, and sometimes even together with the yellow spot.

But when the aperture happened in a part of the yolk equally distant from the two *chalazas*, they then wrought in concert to expel the yolk ; and after this, reunited in the centres of the egg, by the contraction of the membrane of the yolk, to the ends whereof they are strongly fastened, which made the resemblance of a serpent much more twisted than when there was only one *chalaza*.

After the yolk had been intirely evacuated, and even followed by the most fluid part of the white, its aperture was soon closed up, and cicatrized by the viscidty of the white, as well as by the fatty matter smeered over the inside of the oviduct, and even by the humid matter of the egg-shell lodged at the bottom of this duct.

I have collected some of this humour, and exposing it to a gentle heat, it formed a substance perfectly like the shell.

There is a great probability, that part of the white went away with the yolk, since there was only about a third so much white in one of these, as in a common egg.

I have sometimes found the *cicatrix* of the aperture of the membrane whereat the yolk had issued so closely fastened to the part of the shell corresponding to it, that one could not have separated

rated it without tearing, which was not the case in the rest of the circumference.

If hens sometimes lay eggs without shells, it is owing either to some disease, which irritating the tube, makes them expel the egg before its time; or too great a fecundity, which will not give them leisure to ripen them all; some hens will, in the same day, lay a perfect orderly egg, and another without a shell; add, that the want of a sufficient quantity of this humour which forms the shells, may in some hens be a cause thereof. It is possible likewise for a hen to lay eggs like those here described, when by the violence of its struggles to be delivered of it, or by some other external cause the yolk of the egg happens to be burst in the oviduct; but this cause not being constant, the same hens may at other times lay well conditioned eggs.

Such choakings or compressions which utterly prevent or annihilate the young ones in the oviparous kind, by withdrawing the matter of the nutriment, would only render those of the viviparous kind monsters, by reason these do not carry their nutriment with them, but find it in the womb where they are going, provided such compression do not destroy any part essential to the life of the animal.——Hence we are not to be surprised, that these latter furnish much more monsters than the former.

An explanation of the figures, translated by J. M.

Plate I. fig. 1. represents an egg without yolk, of the natural bigness, covered with its shell, having one angle acute, and the other obtuse.

Fig. 2. represents the same egg opened.

AAA the clear white.

BB

BB the thick white, in the centre of which appears the *chalaza*, or figure of the pretended serpent.

Fig. 3. represents the same *chalaza* taken from the centre of the thick white, and viewed through a microscope.

Fig. 4. shews the inside of the belly of the hen, which laid the eggs represented in the preceding figures.

AAAA the ovary.

BBBBBBBBB the oviduct.

CCCCC the preternatural bladder filled with clear water, situated in the middle of the *abdomen*, laid on one side to discover its fastenings; it covers a part of the oviduct, and strangles it in the 2 places marked FF.

D the expansion, or entrance of the oviduct.

EE the ligament, which fastens the side of the right expansion of the ovary.

FF the ligament of the neck of the bladder CCCCC, which strangles two places of the oviduct.

GG the fastening of the ligament; the upper one to the ligament EE, and the lower one to the centre of the mesentery of the oviduct.

H the *cloaca* in which are seen two apertures; one of which corresponds with the oviduct, and the other with the intestine.

IIII several yellow concretions, interspersed in the *abdomen*, resembling parcels of the yolk of a hard egg.

XVII. *A comparison of the observations of the eclipse of the moon, Feb. 13, 1710, made in different places, by M. Maraldi*.*

We have compared the observations of this eclipse made at *Montpellier*, by Mess. *Plantade* and *de Clapiez*, with those which are made at the same time at *Versailles* and at *Paris*; and this is the result of them.

^h
II 15 50 All *Grimaldi* out of the shadow at *Montpellier*.

II 9 0 *Grimaldi* intirely emerged at *Versailles*.

6 50 Difference of the meridians between *Versailles* and *Montpellier*; but *Versailles* is more westerly than *Paris* by 50" of time; therefore the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *Montpellier*, is 6' 0".

II 23 53 The eclipse was 8 digits at *Montpellier*.

19 0 The same phase at *Paris*.

4 51 Difference of the meridians.

II 32 40 The eclipse is 7 digits at *Montpellier*.

28 0 It is 7 digits at *Paris*.

4 40 Difference of the meridians.

II 29 0 *Copernicus* out of the shadow at *Montpellier*.

II 22 0 The shadow quits *Copernicus* at *Versailles*.

7 0 Difference of the meridians between *Montpellier* and *Versailles*, and between *Montpellier* and *Paris*, 6 10".

* March 12, 1710.

Fig. 1.

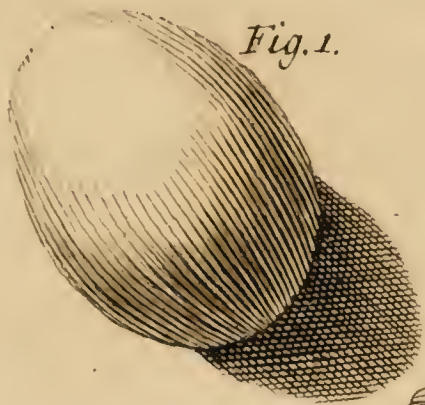


Fig. 4.



Fig. 2.

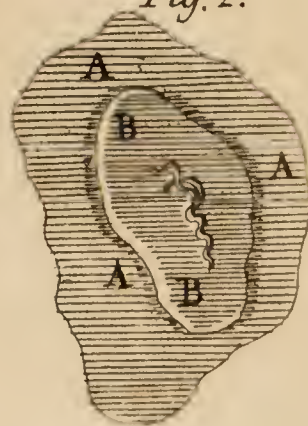
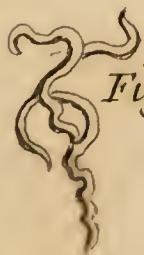


Fig. 3.



- ^h
 II 42 0 The shadow at the edge of *Menalaus*,
 at *Montpellier*.
 II 36 15 The shadow at *Menalaus*.
 5 45 Difference of the meridians between
Montpellier and *Paris*.
 II 47 2 *Pliny* at *Montpellier*.
 IO 40 0 *Pliny* begins to emerge at *Versailles*.
 7 2 Difference of the meridians between
Versailles and *Montpellier*, and be-
 tween *Paris* and *Montpellier* 6' 12"
 by this observation.
 II 47 2 *Pliny* at *Montpellier*.
 II 41 20 The shadow of *Pliny* observed at
Paris.
 5 42 Difference of the meridians.
 II 53 18 All *Tycho* out of the shadow at *Mont-*
pellier.
 II 47 10 The shadow at the second border of
Tycho at *Paris*.
 6 8 Difference of the meridians.
 12 12 24 The eclipse is one digit at *Montpellier*.
 12 8 0 The same phase at *Paris*.
 4 24 Difference of the meridians.
 12 18 10 End of the eclipse at *Montpellier*.
 12 12 20 End of the eclipse at *Paris*.
 5 50 Difference of the meridians between
Paris and *Montpellier*.
 12 11 30 End of the eclipse at *Versailles*.
 6 40 Difference of the meridians between
Versailles and *Montpellier*.

By the comparison of these observations, the spots of *Grimaldi*, *Copernicus*, and *Tycho*, give within some seconds the same difference of the meridians between *Versailles*, *Paris*, and *Montpellier*; and that of 6' 10" which results between *Montpellier* and *Paris*, agrees with that which

has been found by the observations of the satellites of *Jupiter*, made in both places, and by the triangles of the meridian. The difference of the meridians which results between *Paris* and *Ver-sailles*, by the same observations, is also the same that has been found between these 2 cities, by geometrical operations.

This exactness comes from the spots being well determined, and the time of the shadow's quitting the second limb of these spots being well distinguished. There is not the same exactness in the difference of the meridians which results from the spots of *Pliny* and *Menelaus*, observed at *Paris* and *Montpellier*; because as these spots have some breadth, they have not agreed perhaps in marking the arrival of the shadow at the same term of the spot, as they have done in the observation of the former spots.

The difference of the meridians which results from the determination of the digits eclipsed, is a little more than that of the spots; which shews, that we must not make use of these sorts of observations in the finding of longitudes, except when we have no observations of the spots.

Lastly we see, that in the determination of the end of this eclipse, all the observers agree within about $\frac{1}{2}$ a minute, tho' they are not so exactly agreed in the determination of the digits eclipsed.

TABLE

OF THE

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A N
A B R I D G M E N T
O F T H E

PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOVERIES and OB-
SERVATIONS in the HISTORY of the
ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at
Paris, for the Year 1711.

I. *On the communication of air in water.*

WE know that the water is quite filled and impregnated with air. As soon as it is *in vacuo*, the air which it contained, disengages itself, and goes out, in an infinite number of bubbles. The mechanism of the respiration of fishes, consists only in drawing from the water, the air that is inclosed in it; but Mefs. *de la Hire* had a mind to see what power obliges it to enter therein, and whether it enters with a velocity proportioned to the force with which this power impells it.

For this purpose, they took a crooked glass tube, with unequal branches, the longest of which being hermetically sealed, was twenty-four inches, and the shortest three. They poured water in it, inclining it, but did not fill it intirely; so that when they afterwards placed it vertically, there happened to it the same thing, as to a tube not quite filled with quicksilver. There was at the top of the long branch, some air a little dilated; it occupied four inches, and the water kept up at sixteen inches, nine lines, above the water of the little branch: these four inches of air, and these sixteen inches, nine lines, of water, made there-

fore an *equilibrium*, with the intire column of air which pressed upon the little branch ; and as they had taken the time when the barometer was in its mean height, this column was equivalent to $27 \frac{1}{2}$ inches of quick-silver, or thirty-two feet of water, which are three hundred eighty-four inches : consequently the four inches of air inclosed in the long branch, made an *equilibrium* with three hundred sixty-seven inches, three lines of water, and were more dilated than the outward air in the ratio of three hundred eighty-four, to above three hundred sixty-seven.

The air which touched the water of the little branch, being more condensed, or which comes to the same thing, more pressed than that of the long branch, ought therefore to enter into the water, to pass into the long branch, to rise always through the water, to join itself to the air of the top of the tube, to augment its bulk, and its weight, and make the sixteen inches, nine lines, of water, sink. To make the outward air enter into the water in a greater quantity, the little branch opened into a glass phial, which presented to the air, a pretty large surface.

This was done the 16th of *March*, 1710 ; and the crooked tube was left in experiment. Mess. *de la Hire* fully expected, that the water of the long branch would sink, as they had seen it happen to that of a water-barometer which they had ; they believed also, that besides its descending in general, by the introduction of a new air into the top of the tube, it would have some particular variations of height, by the same causes with the barometer and thermometer ; but the event was absolutely contrary to all that could be foreseen.

At the end of three months, the water was risen
about

about four lines in the tube; and the 26th of *December* it was an entire inch; so that the air which was inclosed in it had lost $\frac{1}{4}$ of its bulk. The variations of the heat, and of the gravity of the atmosphere, had not any effect upon this water.

Mess. *de la Hire* do not yet undertake to explain so unexpected, and so odd a phænomenon. They labour to clear it by other experiments, which perhaps have also their oddnesses, or their wonders.

II. *On the cause of the variation of the barometer; translated by Mr. Chambers.*

It is evident from the barometer, that when it rains, or is about to rain, the air usually becomes lighter than before. Now 'tis easy to imagine, that if the air become lighter, it must rain; for that the little insensible molecules of water diffused in vast quantities through all parts of the air, being no longer sufficiently sustained, when the air has lost part of its weight, must of course begin to fall; and by this fall, united together, form drops of rain: thus in the receiver of an air-pump, after about half of the air is exhausted, and consequently the weight of the whole diminished by half, we find a little shower trickle down. — But then, how comes the air to loose its weight? The answer might be, that where it rains, the winds have driven part of it elsewhere; but M. *Leibnitz*, in a letter to the *Ablé Bignon*, alledges another reason, entirely new.

He asserts, that a foreign body immersed in a fluid, weighs with that fluid, and make part of its whole weight, so long as it is sustained therein; but that if it cease to be sustained, and consequently

quently begin to fall, its weight will no longer make part of that of the fluid, which therefore becomes lighter of course. ——— The application of this, to the molecules of water, is easy; they increase the weight of the air while it sustains them, and diminish it when it lets them fall; and as it may frequently happen, that the higher molecules of water shall fall a considerable time ere they join the lower, the weight of the air will be diminished ere it rain, and the barometer will foretel it.

This new principle of M. *Leibnitz* is very surprising; for a foreign body immersed in a fluid, whether it be sustained therein, or not, must still weigh, or gravitate. And can its weight bear on any other bottom, than that which supports the whole fluid? Does this bottom cease to bear the foreign body, because it falls? And does not this body, even in its fall, continue to make part of the fluid so far as it regards its weight? By this account, while a chymical precipitation is proceeding, the whole matter must weigh less than it did, before the precipitation began, which is more than was ever yet observed.

But notwithstanding all these objections, the principle will subsist when closely examined. What supports a heavy body is pressed by it; a table, for instance, which supports a lump of iron of a pound weight, will be pressed by it; and will only be pressed, because it sustains the whole action and effort, which the cause of weight, whatever it be, exerts on this lump of iron to drive it downwards; if therefore the table yield, and give way to the action of this cause of weight, it will no longer be pressed by it; and consequently will not bear any thing: after the same manner, the bottom of a vessel containing

a fluid, opposes the whole action of the causes of gravity on that fluid; and if a foreign body float therein, the bottom will also oppose the action of the cause of gravity thereon; for that such body being *in equilibrio* with the fluid, is as to this respect, a real part of it: thus the bottom is pressed, both by the fluid, and the foreign body; and it bears them both; but if such body fall, it yields to the action of gravity; and consequently the bottom does not sustain it, nor will sustain it till the body falls upon it, during the time of the fall; therefore the bottom is eased of the weight of this body, which is no longer bore by any thing, but impelled by the cause of gravity, which nothing hinders it from yielding to.

To confirm this doctrine, M. *Leinbitz* proposed an experiment.——To the two ends of a thread fasten two bodies; one of them heavier, and the other lighter than water; but such as that, both together, may float on the water: put these in a phial full of water, and suspend this phial in a ballance, where it stands exactly in equilibrio with another weight; then cut the thread which ties the two bodies together, and the heavier will begin to fall. In this case he holds, that the phial will no longer maintain the equilibrium; but that the weight, which before was equal to it, will now prevail, and make it mount by reason the bottom of the phial, which bears the whole weight thereof, is now less pressed than before. It is evident such phial must be of a sufficient length, that the falling body may not arrive at the bottom, before the phial have had time to mount. In chymical precipitations, the vessels are not deep enough, or the matters precipitate too hastily, or sometimes even too slowly, for the effect of this principle to appear, so that the falling particles
are

always, as to sense, in equi-librio, with the liquor which contains them.

M. *Ramazzini*, a celebrated professor at *Padua*, to whom M. *Leibnitz* had proposed his experiment, made it with success after a few fruitless tryals, and it succeeded in the same manner with M. *de Reaumur*, to whom the academy deputed the care of making it, so that we have here a new view in philosophy, which tho' it arise from a principle well known, is yet very subtle and abstruse; and may give us room to apprehend, that in subjects which had been the most canvassed, many things have still escaped us.

III. *The description of a natural grotto near Foligno, in Italy.*

M. *Maraldi* has given the description of a natural grotto, which has been found in making the foundation of a house, that M. *le Marquis Elisei* built three miles from *Foligno*, in *Italy*. The figure of the grotto is irregular; its greatest height, which is unequal, is thirty or forty feet, and ten or twelve paces broad. The walls of it are formed by a fine incrustation of marble, of a pale yellow colour; and they are raised from space to space, by columns in *basso relievo*, of the same marble. From the top of the vault there descended other like columns, some quite to the ground, which were twenty-five feet long; the others at different distances; and the shortest were only two or three feet: their diameters were also of very different sizes. Among all these diversities, there was a remarkable regularity. The height of the walls, and of the columns, both of those that are placed against the walls, and of those

those which descended from the top, provided they descend low enough, is divided into two unequal parts, by a cord which runs through the whole; and is in the same horizontal plane raised about four feet above the floor. All that is above the cord, is more equal, and uniform, and less rugged than that which is below. From the cord, the columns grow thicker to a certain distance; after which they grow less. In this swelling, M. *Maraldi* found the circumference of the columns to be thirty inches; whereas it is only twenty-two above the cord. This floor of the grotto is unequal, and formed by broad and thin slabs of marble, placed one upon another; and sometimes in such a manner, that they make little arches, which, by walking upon them, sink in, and break.

As there is near this place a river, the waters of which have a sulphurous taste, and smell, M. *Maraldi* believes, that these waters in filtrating thro' the earths, may have brought away some clay, or sand, which being mixed with some sulphur, may have formed all the petrifications of the grotto; for he observes, that the sulphurous waters of *Tivoli* have always a number of little stones; the assemblage of which forms a sort of *Travertin*; and that probably these waters have produced them, since the common opinion of the workmen is, that this *Travertin* increases sensibly. Some finer sands which have been brought at first, have made the petrifications which are above the cord, more equal, and more perfect; afterwards, some coarser sands which have passed thro' the paths, which the first had opened, perhaps also mixed with too much water, to give it an easier passage, have made the lower petrifications, less uniform, and not so well wrought.

The grotto of *Antiparos*, which was spoken of by the late M. *Tournefort* in the memoirs of 1702*, was also full of pieces of marble; but they came out of the earth, and raised themselves upwards. And if, as we have said in the history of 1708, this grotto in the hypothesis of M. *Tournefort* was a garden, of which the pieces of marble were the plants, this of *Foligno* will be also a garden, but inverted since the plants grow from its arch, and descend in this respect like coral.

IV. *On the reduction of the depth of snow in melting.*

According to M. *de la Hire*'s observations, snow, when melted, is reduced always to the fifth or sixth part of the height that it had. The night between the 13th and 14th of *February*, this year, there fell some snow, which was reduced to $\frac{1}{12}$ th of its height; that is to say, in melting it diminished as much again as usual: the reason of it is, as M. *de la Hire* has observed, that it was very fine, very thin, and all in small flakes, and excessively dry; which supporting themselves, one upon another, occupied a great deal of space. Because of this dryness, it fastened but little upon the houses; and that which fell upon the north-side, from whence the wind came, was entirely carried away, although there fell six or seven inches of snow.

* Vol. I. p. 419 of this abridgment.

V. *Of the colours of bodies melted by the burning-glass.*

M. *Homborg* has said, that such substances as gold, silver, &c. which being in fusion at the focus of a burning glass, appear to the naked eye, only under the colour of light; and with a prodigious brightness, are seen with their natural colours, if they are viewed through a smoaked glass.

VI. *Of a glew for agat.*

M. *Homborg* has proved, that the glew of cheese, which is proper for glass, is of no use for agat; and that it must have the varnish of china.

VII. *Of a salt found in the waters of Arcueil.*

In November 1710, M. *de la Hire* the son, having a mind to make some experiments, had with the water of *Arcueil* filled a bottle, in which there had been wine; but it had been rinsed with two or three waters; he put a piece of lead in it as big as a nut, and afterwards stopped it well with a cork. He left it without touching it, in a place where the sun did not shine, and where there was no fire made. In *January* following, he looked at his bottle, and perceived that upon the convex part of the bottom of the bottle, there was a little white body, as big as a pin's head, and some days after, not having removed the bottle, he saw that it was a grain of salt of a cubic figure, and that it began to form several others

round it. They continued forming themselves till the end of *May*, when there was about twenty of a middling size, and as many small ones. *M. de la Hire* drew some of them out of the bottle without emptying it, and he found they had the figure of the sea-salt, and a little of its taste. Having kept them some days wrapt up in a paper, he saw that they were become white instead of transparent, as they were before, that they were almost all reduced to powder, and calcined of themselves; and that those which were not so, easily broke, and became a very fine white powder.

As the water of *Arcueil* produces a stony crust in the channels where it runs, we might believe, that the matter found in the bottle was of the same nature, but it had a taste, and calcined in the air, two qualities which the other has not.

We know that lead dissolves in vinegar, and *M. de la Hire* suspected, that some acid particles of the wine which had not been taken away in washing the bottle, might have acted upon the little bit of lead that he had put in, and loosened these little white grains from it; but if they had been lead, they would easily have incorporated with an oil, as that of nuts, which they did not do at all.

There is therefore more probability, that they were salt, altho' it is pretty extraordinary, that they should be thus formed in so pure a water as that of *Arcueil*. In emptying the bottle, *M. de la Hire* saw, that some bits of threads were hardened by this salt, and that the rest were rotten.

VIII. *Of a surprising swiftness in the motion of an almost invisible insect.*

M. *Delisle* has observed, that a fly, so small as to be almost invisible, run over a paper of almost three inches, in half a second. It was so small, that its feet might be reckoned to apply themselves successively upon the whole space that it run over ; and as it appeared to M. *Delisle* that they might be $\frac{1}{5}$ of a line in bigness ; it made in the space of a line, fifteen steps, or fifteen motions ; and consequently it made 540 in the space of 3 inches. How nimble must it be to remove one foot above 500 times in $\frac{1}{2}$ a second, or more than 1000 times in one of the common pulsations of our arteries ! It is true, that with a magnifying glass, this insect appears to have two wings, but it is not perceived to use them.

IX. *Observations on some puppies killed hastily.*

M. *Littre* says, that having suddenly, and at one stroke, cut off the heads of sucking puppies, he found the stomachs full of sour and coagulated milk. Now there was not any considerable alteration made in it, since the death of the animal was so quick ; and consequently it appears, that the milk was soured by a natural ferment of the stomach ; and that it is this ferment which makes the digestion, which some skilful moderns make to depend entirely upon the *trituration* of the membranes of this bowel.

M. *Littre* had another design in this experiment ; he had a mind to see if the water of the *Pericardium*, and that of the ventricles of the brain, which we commonly find in dead bodies, were not produced, as some maintain, by the approach
of

of death, by sickness, by agitations, &c. These puppies so hastily killed, were proper for resolving the question. They had water both in the *pericardium*, and in the ventricles of the brain, and consequently they must have some natural use.

X. *On windmills.*

The perfection of windmills, that we have boasted of in the history of 1701*, must be understood only of the two points there mentioned. The axis of the mill which carries the sails, must be put exactly in the direction of the wind, and the sails must be oblique with regard to this axis, and make with it an angle of almost 55° . The first point is always observed in the practice; the second is often wanting; and M. *Parent* has observed, that about *Paris*, the angle which ought to be 55° is $71 \frac{1}{2}$, which exceeds too far from what is prescribed by the theory of mechanicks.

Besides this well-known defect, which cannot be imputed to the theory, it is very possible that there may be others in the machine which we do not know, because the geometricians have not examined them enough. They put four sails, and they make them rectangular; the proportion of these rectangles, is commonly 32 feet length of sail, from the centre of the *axis*, or *arbor*; and 27 feet length of cloth, to 7 in breadth. But how are we sure that these are the number of sails, and the figure, and the proportion which agree the best with the design of the machine? We might even consider also the position of the sails, of which the smallest dimension, or the breadth, is put to the side of the *axis*, without any ways doubting whether the other dimension should not be put there. However, nothing of all this is demonstrated, and M. *Parent* comes at last to dissi-

* Vol. I. p. 258.

pate this uncertainty, and fix all the views that can be had upon this subject.

The whole force of a windmill depends on the impresson of the wind upon its sails. We shall not determine the number of them; but consider only one, of which the figure, the proportion, and position, such as we have just explained, shall remain undeterminate. We must only suppose the *axis* to be in the direction of the wind, and that the sail makes with the *axis*, an angle of 55° , since these are already two advantages that we are sure of, and two truths, of which we are satisfied. The impresson of the wind upon one sail, is as much greater as the surface of this sail is greater, since there are a greater number of points impelled by a force, which in itself, is equal. But as the sail is fastened to the *axis*, the same wind acts upon the different parts of the sail, with so much more advantage, as they are farther distant from the centre of the *axis*, because a greater distance from this centre, which is the fixed point, is a greater lever, by which the wind acts: thus we may look upon the whole length, or height, of the sail, as a series of levers continually increasing; among which there is necessarily a mean, which so compensates the disadvantage of the small, and the advantage of the great ones, that if the wind acted by this lever alone, it would act as much as by all the rest together, and therefore the *centre of the impresson* of the wind upon the sail, is at the extremity of this lever, according to the idea that we have given of these sorts of centres in the history of 1702, and 1703.

The action of the wind upon the different points of the surface of the sail, being of itself
equal,

equal, it is the same thing as if we should consider them as equal weights, but unequally distant from a fixed point, and acting by unequal levers. Now in this case, the point where all their action would re-unite, or to speak more accurately, the point in relation to which the product of the weights, by their levers, would be equal on both sides, would be the centre of gravity. Therefore here the centre of gravity of the sail, fastened to the *axis*, and the centre of impression of the wind upon the sail, are only the same thing.

The farther the centre of gravity of the sail shall be from the centre of the *axis*, the longer will the lever of the wind be, and the more advantageously will the wind act. Besides, its force is absolute, which is as much greater, as the surface upon which it falls is greater; and consequently the whole force of the action of the wind, is a product of the surface of the sail, by the distance of the centre of the *axis* from the centre of gravity of the sail.

We know, that according to the figure, and more exactly according to a geometrical nature of a surface, the centre of gravity is there placed at different distances from the same fixed point, with regard to which we consider the different levers of its different parts. Thus the wind may act with more force upon a small surface, than upon a large one; if in recompense it acts upon the small by a longer lever; and in general, the lever of the wind being variable, according to the figure of the sails, we must necessarily make it enter into the examinations of the force of the wind. We suppose for the sail, a length, or height, which shall always be the same example, or 32 feet, let the sail be filled or not, that is to say, let the cloth begin, or not begin, from the *axis* of the mill.

M. *Parent* gave at first a figure to the sail that had never been seen; he would have them a sector of an *ellipsis*; the centre of which, should be that of the *axis*, or *arbor*, of the mill; and the small *semi-axis* the height of 32 feet; and for the great, it necessarily comes afterwards by the supposition, which always subsists, that any sail whatever is inclined to the *axis* of the mill by 55° . We shall not rest upon this point, which is too geometrical. The elliptical sail is full: but to have its centre of gravity, it must be known what portion of an *ellipsis* it is, if this sector is $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{6}$, or which is the same thing, if we would allow 2, or 4, or 6, sails to the mill; and this is the reason.

The centre of gravity of an elliptical sector, is the same as that of the corresponding sector of a circle described upon the little *axis* of the *ellipsis*. Now to have the centre of gravity of a circular sector, we must have that of the arch of this sector; and the whole depends upon well understanding what the centre of gravity of an arch of a circle is.

We must conceive this arch with its cord, in proportion to which all the points of the arch are as equal weights, acting by levers, which are lines drawn from each of these points, upon the cord parallel to the *radius*, that cuts the cord in half. The part of this *radius* contained between the cord, and the arch, is the versed sine of the arch. This sine is the greatest of all the levers; and it is this, by which the summit of the arch acts. All the others to the right, and left, continually diminish, till they come to nothing. It is visible, that a mean lever will be smaller than this versed sine; and will be a part of it; one extremity of which will be at the *vertex* of the arch,

and the other will be the centre of gravity of the arch. The smaller an arch is, the smaller is its versed sine ; and consequently also its mean lever, part of this sine, and reciprocally. It remains to see according to what proportion the mean lever is part of the versed sine.

A mean lever among many small, and many great ones, will be as much greater, as the number of the small shall be less, in proportion to that of the great ones. Now in considering the different arches of a circle with their cords, we see evidently, that the greater an arch is, the less is the number of these small levers, and the larger is the number of the great ones. Therefore, the larger an arch is, the greater is its mean lever; and is less exceeded by the versed sine ; that is to say, it is a greater part of this sine. The mean lever of the semi-circumference, for example, will be a greater part of the *radius*, which is then the versed sine, than the mean lever of any other arches less than 180, compared in like manner to its versed sine.

The greater an arch is, the greater it is in proportion to its cord, which appears manifestly in this, that an infinitely small arch is equal to its cord ; and that therefore the arch of 600, which has the semi-diameter for a cord, is not so great in proportion to this semi-diameter, as the arch of 180 ; or the semi-circumference, in proportion to the diameter ; for these two terms are sufficient to establish the species of the progression. Therefore the greater an arch is in proportion to its cord, by so much is the mean lever of an arch, a greater part of its versed sine.

The greater part of its versed sine, the mean lever of an arch is, the more does the centre of gravity of the arch approach to the centre of the circle, or which is the same thing, the more does the distance of these two centres diminish ; and it
is

is the smaller in proportion to the *radius*. Therefore the greater an arch is in proportion to its cord, the greater is the radius in proportion to the distance from the centre of the circle, to the centre of gravity of this arch; and it is this exact proportion which is determined by geometry. We see by this, that the distance of the centres of gravity of the arches, from the centre of the circle, varies according to the proportion of the arches to the cords which is continually unequal.

It is easy to imagine what is the centre of gravity of a circular sector. We may conceive them divided into circular zones, which will act with relation to the centre of the circle, by greater or less levers, according as they shall be more or less distant from this centre. They will have a mean lever, of which the extremity that shall be within the circle, will be the centre of gravity of the sector. It is demonstrated, that after we shall have determined the centre of gravity of the arch of this sector, if we take $\frac{2}{3}$ of the distance from the centre of the circle to this centre, it is there that the centre of gravity of the circular sector is.

Since the centre of gravity of a sector depends upon that of the arch, the same consequences recur, the greater a sector shall be, the more will its centre of gravity approach to the centre of the circle; and that in the same proportion, according to which, a greater arch exceeds its cord. Therefore if a power act upon a sector which has the centre of the circle for a fixed and immovable point, and if the whole action re-unites in the centre of gravity of this sector, the power will act by a lever, as much shorter as the sector shall be greater; the same must be said of elliptical sectors, as of circular, since their centre of gravity is the same.

To calculate the force of the wind upon one fail of a mill, which should be an elliptic sector, M. *Parent* has therefore been obliged to determine what this sector is, because of the variation of the centres of gravity ; or which is the same thing, of the levers of the wind. He at first took a sector which was $\frac{1}{4}$ of the ellipsis ; and consequently has allowed to the mill 4 fails, which would receive all the wind, and not loose any of it, as the common fails do. These 4 large surfaces multiplied by the lever of the wind upon one of them, express the whole force of the wind to make the machine move, or the force of the machine put in motion.

The same manner of reasoning applied to a common wind-mill, the fails of which are rectangular, and the height about 5 times greater than their breadth, shews that the elliptic mill has almost 7 times more power, which is a prodigious advantage, and certainly deserves to have the common practice entirely changed for it, were it but easy to change so common a practice. One would not have expected that the theory could have discovered so great an error in an established custom ; but it is true that elliptical fails would not easily at present themselves to the mind of the first inventers.

A mill with 6 elliptic fails would still be better for the power, than one with 4. It would have only the same surface, since these 6 fails would contain the whole space of the *ellipsis*, as well as the 4 of the other, but its force would be greater almost in the *ratio* of 245, to 231. The reason of this augmentation is visible. A sector that is $\frac{1}{8}$ of a circle, is less than that which is $\frac{1}{4}$; and consequently the wind acts upon the first by a longer lever.

As

As the difference of 245, to 231, is trifling ; and as besides the wind might be hindered in six sails, and be reflected from one to the other, in such a manner as would trouble their motion, I believe we had better keep to the mill with 4 elliptical sails.

If we would have it with two, each of which should be a *semi-ellipsis*, we should find the same surface also ; but the force would be diminished almost $\frac{1}{3}$ with relation to the mill with 6 sails, because the greatness of the sectors would very much shorten the lever of the wind.

Elliptical sails to a mill would be something so new, that the common use of them would hardly be adopted. Thus M. *Parent* thought he ought to search for the most advantageous rectangular ones, that is, those where the product of their surface, by the lever of the wind, would be the greatest. Every body knows, that the centre of gravity of a rectangle is its middle point, and consequently the lever of the wind is the distance of this point from the centre of the *axis*.

M. *Parent* inscribes in the elliptical sail of a mill with 4 sails, a rectangle of which he does not determine the dimensions, and which consequently represents all that can be inscribed there, after which, the geometrical rules *de maximis & minimis*, determine this rectangle to be the most advantageous of all. That which comes by this means, is yet very different from the common use. The breadth of the rectangular sail must be almost double its height or length ; whereas the height is commonly almost 5 times greater than the breadth. We see also, that since we call height, or length, the dimension that is taken from the centre of the *axis*, the greatest dimension of the new rectangular sail, will be turned on the side
of

of this *axis*, quite contrary to the position of the old sails. They have been mistaken in all this to a strange excess.

The force of a mill with 4 elliptic sails, would be to that of a mill with 4 new rectangular sails, pretty near, as 23 to 13, which always preserves a great advantage to the elliptic mills.

If we compare together mills with two, with four, and with six, new rectangular sails, and the most advantageous that can be, supposing this number of sails, and always inscribed in the corresponding elliptic sectors, we see that those which have fewest sails, have most surface, and least force. The force diminishes because the height which increases brings the rectangles nearer to the centre of the axis, and consequently also their centres of gravity, and shortens the lever of the wind, according to a greater proportion than the surface increases. The force of the mill with 6 sails, is to that of the mill with 4, much as 14 to 13, which perhaps ought not to hinder the mill with 4, from being preferred, because of its greater simplicity. Its force with relation to that of the mill with 2 sails is almost as 13 to 9.

After this it is easy to calculate the force of the common mill, where we must suppose the height of the sail always much greater than the breadth. But in this supposition, whatsoever proportion the breadth has to the height, let it be $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{5}$, we find always the force of the mill much smaller than if it had the new rectangular sails, and much more if they had elliptical ones. And also the force of the common mill continues to diminish, just as its sails are smaller in proportion to its height, so that the weakest of all those we have marked, is that where this breadth is $\frac{1}{5}$ of the height, and yet

yet this is the most used ; so obstinate does the common practice seem in being mistaken.

The usefulness of all this theory of M. *Parent's* is easily perceived. A stronger mill will turn faster, and with a less wind, and will dispatch more work. In a low place, and where for want of wind it would be useless to construct an old mill which would be too weak, they may construct a new one. We shall have, if we please, a mill of a less height of sail, which, nevertheless will be equal in force to an old one ; and we shall know exactly how much we shall lower its sail ; preserving this equality. When we shall know the effect that is required to the mill, that is the force that we would give it, in pounds, it will be easy to find by calculation the number of sails, their figure, proportion, and even the varieties, and different combinations, that these things may have always the same effect. The trouble of discovering the true principle is always rewarded by a great number of easy consequences.

XI. *On the manner in which several sorts of shell-fishes fasten themselves to certain bodies.*

In treating of the progressive motion of several kind of shell-fish, in the history of 1710*, we have spoken of the almost perpetual immobility of some of them ; for we cannot treat of their progressive motion without saying that the greatest part of them have hardly any ; and in this respect partake more of plants, than of animals. There are even some which absolutely never stir from the place where (if I may use the expression) they

* Vol. III. page 321 of this abridgment.

have taken root. We are at present going to explain their immobility according to *M. de Reaumur*, the author of all these observations.

The *patella*, or limpet*, fixes itself by a very flat base to stones, and even very smooth ones; and is fastened there so strongly, that being put in a situation where this base and the stone were vertical, it required a weight of 28 or 30 lb. to make it let go. We must observe that this base, which is elliptical, has but one inch in its greatest diameter. From whence can this great strength proceed? it is not very probable, seeing the smoothness of the two bodies, that the base of the limpet, how muscular soever, should be sufficiently inserted into the imperceptible inequalities of the stone; and indeed this insertion would not have any great effect in the vertical situation. Besides, *M. de Reaumur* is assured by decisive experiments, that this shell-fish fastens itself so strongly to the stone, by the means of a glue which proceeds from it; and that the action of the muscles of its base, which we might add thereto, has no share in it.

This glue is yet more remarkable in the sea-nettles*, which are not less closely fixed to the stones. These animals are neither covered with scales nor shells, and their skin is not a membrane, or texture of solid fibres; it is only a covering of glew, which dissolves very soon in spirit of wine, whilst the rest of the body of the animal remains entire, and without alteration.

The 1520 legs of the star-fish* do not seem to be given it so much for walking, as for not walking. They are very soft, and serve it to stick to the neighbouring bodies, in such a manner, that

* Vol. III. page 321 of this abridgment.

if one had a mind to disengage it from them, we should only break them.

The sea-muscles have a much more singular manner of fastening themselves. They throw out some threads of the bigness of a thick hair, at most about 3 inches long, and sometimes to the number of 150, with which they seize all that surrounds them, and generally the shells of other muscles. They are thrown on all sides; and they hold by them, as by cords of different directions. M. de Reaumur has not only seen that they spin them, and that when they have been cut off, that they have spun others; but he has discovered the curious particulars of the mechanism that they make use of.

The *pinnae marinæ*, another sort of shell-fish, fix themselves also in another situation, by threads much finer than those of the muscles, but in a much greater number; there are fine works made of them, whereas those of the muscle are good for nothing. There are no *pinnae marinæ* on the coasts of *Poitou*, where M. de Reaumur has observed; but it is a strong presumption that they spin also. These will be the silk worms of the sea, and the muscles will be the caterpillars.

Lastly, the worms which are commonly called worm-shells, because being otherwise pretty like the earth-worms, they are inclosed in a round tube, of the substance of a shell, make themselves a habitation which they never quit, by fixing their tube on a stone, or hard sand, or some other shells. This tube exactly follows the circumvolutions of the surface where it is glued, rises, or sinks with it, &c. It winds also without being obliged to it by this surface; and because it seems to have followed the natural motion of the worm. All this explains itself in M. de Reaumur's system,

who pretends that this tube, as well as the shells of the snails, is formed of a glutinous matter which comes out of the body of this little animal.

Another sort of sea-worms, which probably transpire less of this matter, make their tube only of grains of small sand, and little fragments of other shells which they unite together by their glue; and this little building of pieces brought together, is however neatly enough made.

It is by means of this very glue, that the oysters stick themselves to the rocks, or to one another; and lastly, this is the universal cement which nature uses whenever she has a mind to build in the sea, or to secure any thing there against the perpetual and violent motion of the waters. The most simple means properly employed are the most efficacious.

An explanation of the figures.

Plate II. fig. 1. represents a *patella*, called in *English*, a *limpet*, *slither*, or *papshell*, fastened to a stone. It shews only the shell which covers it. The letters BBB mark the circumference of the base of this shell; S is its *vertex*. There are different flutings which go from the *vertex* S to the base.

Fig. 2. is a *limpet* detached from the stone, and put into a reversed position T; is the head of the animal; CC are two horns placed near the head; P is the fleshy base of the animal. It is this base P that is applied to the stones, and sticks to them. Its surface seems rugged, and as it were shagreened. All these inequalities are formed by an infinite number of different little vesicles.

Fig. 3. is a sea-muscle represented open. The muscle MM, which serves to shut the shell, has been cut.

AB is a part of the muscle which resembles the tongue of an animal. It is the instrument that moulds the threads formed by the animal. A is the origin, base, or root of this instrument. B is its point, or extremity.

AI is a streak, or rather cleft, of which the two edges are applied to each other, and it forms a canal on the inside. This cleft divides the spinning instrument into two equal parts. From A to I we must observe some circular, or rather transverse fibres: they cease in I.

AF is a part of the bundle of threads which serve to fasten the muscle; these threads have been cut at F, that the figure might be less confused; and also to shew how short they were, when we had cut them with a pair of scissars, introduced into the shell on account of this figure 3; we shall observe, that the mouth of the muscle is at C; it is formed of two pretty thin membranes, which seem to be applied to each other. We do not see this mouth open, unless we take care to open it: its breadth is HH. This mouth is a sort of funnel, very much flatted, and terminates in a duct, which reaches quite to the *anus*. It is nourished in all probability only by the water and earth; its excrements are of the colour of the mud.

Fig. 4. is a muscle, which having prolonged its spinning instrument, marked at present LI, feels about to find the ground before it fixes itself. This instrument appears under a very different form from that which it has in the inaction, as may be seen at AB, fig. 3.

VVV are *tubuli vermiculares*, or *worm-shells*, stuck upon the shell of a muscle. These worms grow indifferently upon all sorts of bodies, as stones, sand, and other sorts of shell.

Fig. 5. is composed of 1. a muscle G, which is fastened to a stone by different threads, DDD, &c. The base DD of these threads, is three or four times more in diameter, than the rest of the thread. We see at G a little end of the tendon, or big thread, to which all the slenderest threads are fastened. 2. In *fig. 5.* there is a muscle N, which after having darted the 2 threads NQ, NQ, actually darts a third NT. T is the place where the end of this thread ought to be stuck. We may observe, that the spinning instrument is thicker there than towards the point; and that it forms a sort of heel.

Fig. 6. is the half of a muscle, where the spinning instrument is however left entire. We see there two of the four muscular ligaments, which hold it. RS is one of those which fasten it toward the *vertex* at S. ZX is one of those which fasten it toward the base at Z.

Fig. 7. is a spinning instrument detached. KP is the cleft, or canal, in which the liquor which becomes thread, passes. This canal ceases at P, the part PO, where it does not reach, is thinner than the rest of the base. At the root K of the spinning instrument there appears a hole K, which is the reservoir, wherein the liquor is gathered that rises in the spinning instrument, in the same hole K is lodged one of the ends of the tendon, or big thread of *fig. 9.* to which all the slender threads are fastened.

Fig. 8. is the spinning instrument seen behind. There are two pieces of muscular ligaments MM, which serve to fasten it. These pieces are parts of the ligaments, such as the ligament marked ZR, *fig. 6.*

Fig. 9. AB is the tendon, or big thread, to which all the rest are fastened, as the figure represents. In several muscles it is much shorter than it appears here; but there are some where it is bigger. Its extremity A is fastened in the hole K of *fig. 7.* or as it is seen at A, *fig. 3.* All the threads, which the muscles have formed with me, were fastened near A, which inclines me to believe that this tendon, or big thread, grows like our hairs; and that the slender threads, which at first were fastened at A, are fastened at B by the crossing of big threads.

Fig. 10. is a muscle represented in the state in which it is when it respire the water. CD is the aperture by which it respire. The canal by which it throws out its excrements, opens into the same aperture CD. The outlet of this canal, or the *anus* of the muscle, is at C: the excrements, which come out of it, seem to be meer earth, a sort of mud. They have a fluting thro' their whole length; I mean that they are made as a portion of a hollow tube. Thence it is evident, that the canal by which they are discharged, or at least the aperture thro' which they pass, is not round as in other animals. RH is the place, or spring, which serves to open the shell. EE are an infinite number of little fleshy parts very prettily cut, resembling little cocks-combs. The animal shews only when it respire the water, they are seen also at EE. *Fig. 5.* the respiration is not stopped while it darts the thread.

Fig. 11. is one of the pieces of which the shell of a muscle is composed; we may observe a little band which covers the inner edge of the shell. This band is of a horney kind of substance, and is fastened in its natural state to the circumference of the body of the animal.

Fig.

Fig. 12. is a *peetunculus*, or *cook-fish*, fastened to a stone by different threads FFF, the *vertex* of the shell is at S; on both sides of S, is the spring which serves to open the shell; for this shell is bivalve, like that of the muscle. There appear several flutings, which go from the *vertex* S, to the base BB. In different parts the shell is stuck with points; so is that point of the shell which is called the ear.

Fig. 13. is a *cook-fish* represented open. The thick muscle MM, which serves to shut it, has been cut. L marks the *vertex* of the shell, and the middle of the spring which tends to open the shell. T and R are two appendages, which being placed one above the other, form the ear. The appendage T is narrower than the appendage R, so that the first does not entirely cover the second. They do not apply themselves so exactly to one another, as not to leave a little opening by which a part of the threads came out, which are seen in *fig. 12.* HG is the spinning instrument of the *cook-fish*; GP is the bundle of threads: these threads have been cut short at P, for fear of rendering the figure confused. They are all fastened to a common tendon at P, which is fastened to the origin of the spinning instrument.

Fig. 14. is a *cook-fish* represented in such a posture as to shew the canal VX, thro' which the excrements of the animal pass. X is the aperture of this canal, or the *anus* of the *cook-fish*.

Fig. 15. is a heap of sand, in which a great number of *worm-shells* were lodged. On the upper surface of this heap of sand is the out-let of all their tubes; and on one of the sides, as at BC, may be distinguished, the length, roundness, and curvature of these tubes.

Fig. 16. is one of the sand worm-shells, represented almost in its natural bigness.

Fig. 17. is the same worm seen with the microscope. The extremity of the head is the flat surface seen at T. This extremity, the circumference of which is round, is sometimes made like a horse-shoe, when the animal opens in O. NNN are the fins of the worm. HH, II, EE, are three rows of little fleshy hooks. Q is the tail of the worm.

XII. *On a new purple.*

There are not only more things found in these last ages than there have been old ones lost, but there can hardly be any thing lost that we are not contented should be so. For in short we need only search in the bosom of nature, where nothing is annihilated; and it is also a great step toward recovering it to be sure that it may be found. The purple colour, formerly so much in esteem, that it made among the *Romans* one of the principal marks of dignity, either has not been absolutely lost, as some think, or at least has been recovered within these 30 years, by the royal society of *England*. One of the shell-fishes which furnishes it, and is a species of *buccinum*, or *whelk*, is common on the coasts of that country.

Another *buccinum* which also gives the purple tincture, and which probably is one of those which *Pliny* has described, as having that use, is found upon the coasts of *Poitou*, and M. de *Reaumur* having a mind to study it particularly, discovered another purple which he did not seek for, and which in all probability was unknown to the ancients, though of the same species with theirs.

The *buccinums* of *Poitou* which yield the purple, are commonly found gathered about certain stones, or sand, covered with oval grains, about 3 lines long, and a little more than a line thick, full of a white liquor, a little yellow, pretty much like that which is drawn from the *buccinums* themselves, and which after some alterations, acquires the purple colour. By M. de *Reaumur*'s experiments it is not likely that these grains are the eggs of the *buccinum*, nor are they the seeds of any sea-plants; they must therefore be the eggs of some fish. They do not begin to appear till autumn.

These grains crushed upon a white cloth, at first only make an almost imperceptible yellow, but in 3 or 4 minutes they give it a very fine purple red, provided that this cloth be exposed to the open air: for what is very remarkable, and which shews of what extreme delicacy the generation of this colour is, the air of a room, even though the windows should be open, would not be sufficient. The tincture of these grains fades a little by a great many washings.

M. de *Reaumur* has discovered by some experiments, that the effect of the air upon the liquor of the grains, consists not in its carrying off some of its particles, nor in giving it new ones; but merely in agitating it, and changing the order of the parts which compose it. We have in the cochineal a very fine red colour, but good only for wool; and is of no use, either for silk, or linnen. The *carthamus*, or *saff-flower*, gives a fine scarlet and crimson, but it is only to silk. We may find in cultivating the grains of M. de *Reaumur*, the fine red that we want for linnen, which perhaps will surpass the red of the *Indian* linnen which is not fine.

Fig. 1.

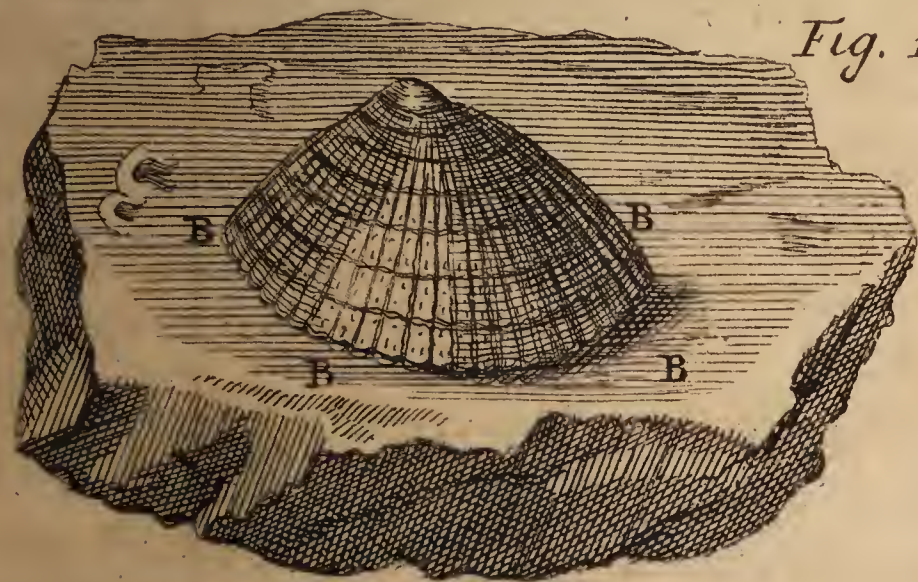


Fig. 2.

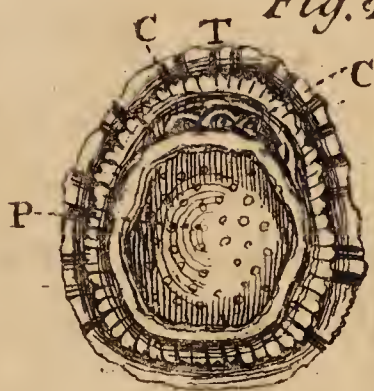


Fig. 9.

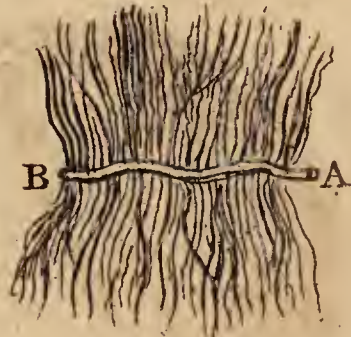


Fig. 10.

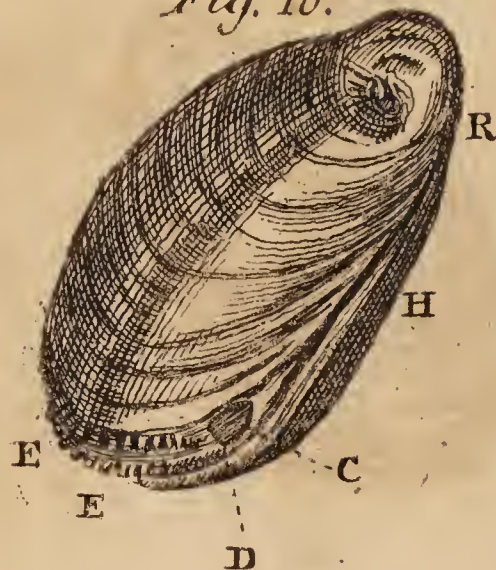


Fig. 11.



Fig. 3.

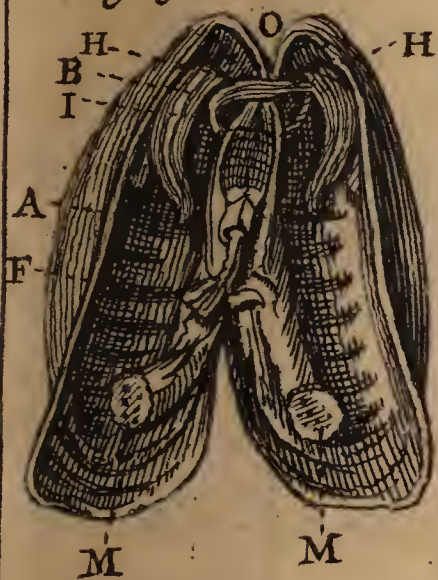


Fig. 4.



Fig. 12.

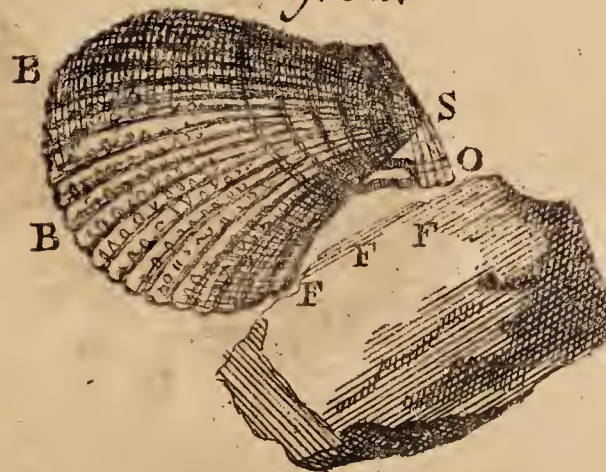


Fig. 13.

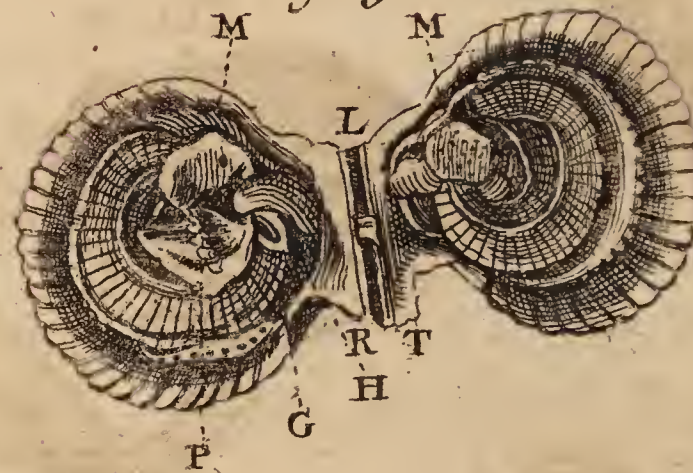


Fig. 5.

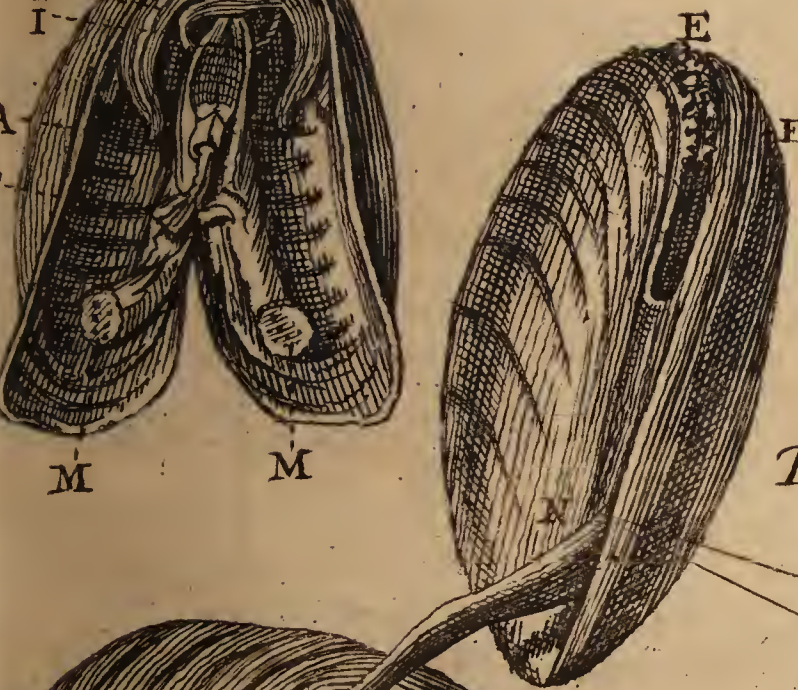


Fig. 6.



Fig. 14.



Fig. 15.



Fig. 8.



Fig. 16.

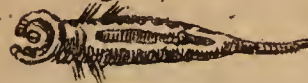


Fig. 17.



Fig. 7.



ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES. 1713
surpass the red of the *Indian* linnen which is not fine.

M. *de Reaumur* has not failed to compare his new purple with that which is drawn from these *buccinums* of *Poitou*. The *buccinums* have at their collar, for we may allow them to have one as well as the snails, a little reservoir, called improperly by the antients, a vein, which only contains one great drop of yellowish liquor; the linnen that is dyed with it being exposed to a moderate heat of the sun, acquires at first a greenish colour, afterward a lemon colour, a brighter green, then a little deeper, from that a violet, and at last a fine purple. This is done in a few hours; but if the heat of the sun be very strong, the first changes are not perceived, and the fine purple appears all at once. A great fire produces the same effect, only a little slower, and does not produce so perfect a colour. Without doubt the heat of the sun being much more subtle than that of a wood fire, is most proper to agitate the finest particles of the liquor. The open air acts also, tho' less quick, upon the liquor of the *buccinums*; especially if it is diluted with a good deal of water; from whence M. *de Reaumur* conjectures, with great probability, that the liquor of the *buccinums*, and that of the grains, are almost of the same nature, except that this of the grains is more aqueous. They differ also in taste; that of the grains is salt, and that of the *buccinum* extremely hot, and biting, perhaps because it is less diluted with water.

If we would make use of them in dying, that of the grain would be much more convenient, and would cost less; because it is very easy to draw

it from a great number of grains bruised all at once; whereas to have that of the *buccinum*, we must open the reservoir of each particular *buccinum*, which requires a great deal of time; or if for expedition we bruise the smallest of these shell-fish, we shall spoil the colour by the mixture of different matters which the animal furnishes.

We might find perhaps some chymical liquors which would make the purple colour appear quicker, or more conveniently, than the fire, or the sun, or the open air; and M. *de Reuamur* has already found the corosive sublimate, which produces this effect on the liquor of the *buccinums*; but practice, and above all, a practice which should come to make part of a trade, would require a great many other observations, and quite new intentions. There is a vast difference between a philosopher who aims at knowledge, and a mechanic who aims at profit.

An explanation of the figures.

Plate III. fig. 1. represents a stone DHHFEED, in which is seen a great number of those little grains which M. *de Reaumur* calls eggs of the purple, fastened as to an arch against one of the faces of this stone. This face was downward, but it did not touch the sand. GGG, &c. are different places where these eggs of the purple are fastened. The eggs of the purple marked EE, are stuck upon other eggs, as the other eggs are stuck upon the stone.

Fig. 2. is that of an egg of a purple; p is its base, the extremity of its pedicle; it is this extremity that is stuck against the stone. p r is its pedicle;

dicle ; this pedicle p r sustains a little bottle r b stopped at b, with a stopple b. d d mark the thickness of this bottle.

Fig. 3. is also an egg of a purple, where the same letters mark the same parts as in the preceding figure ; but b shews the stopple loose ; o the aperture of the bottle in which the stopple was.

Fig. 4. is a large representation of an egg of a purple. The letters PRB shews the same things as the letters p r b in *fig. 2* and *3*. The letters III shew the manner in which the different drops of yellowish liquor are distributed in the middle of the clear liquor. As the sides of the egg are transparent they discover these different liquors.

Fig. 5. is a little *buccinum*, or *whelk* ; it shews the aperture of the shell ; and at the edge of this aperture are several flutings o o o o.

Fig. 6. is a whelk, the shell of which differs from the preceding by the coloured stripes RR.

Fig. 7. is the same whelk as *fig. 5.* which shews its head. T is the head, at the sides of which are 2 horns CC. DDDD mark that part of the shell which covers the collar, or upper part of the back of the animal. This part DDDD of the shell must be raised to perceive the little vessel wherein the purple dye is contained.

Fig. 8. is the same whelk with *fig. 7.* with a piece of the shell DDDD removed, which shews its collar EEEE. Upon this collar, or if you please, on the back of the animal, appears the little vessel v v. It is in this vessel that the purple dye is contained.

Fig. 9. is that of the whelk from which *Columna* pretends the purple dye of the ancients was taken. This whelk usually shews 3 horns, the largest of which C is in the middle between the 2 smaller cc. The same whelk may be seen in the history of 1710, with the great horn C in a different position.

Fig. 4.



Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.

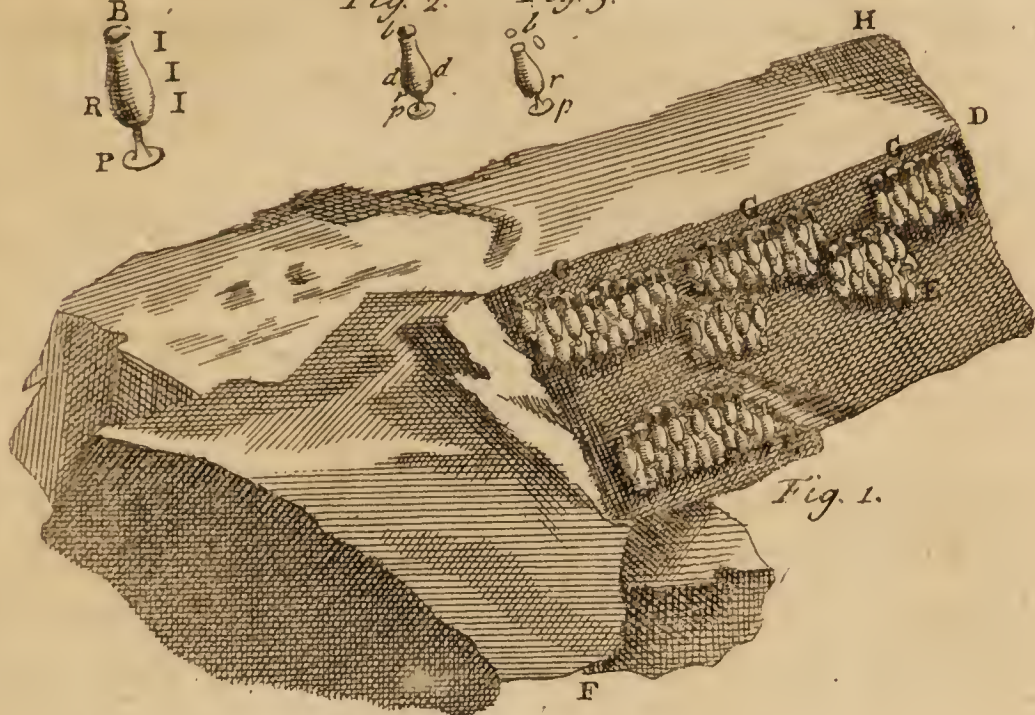
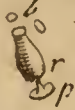


Fig. 8.

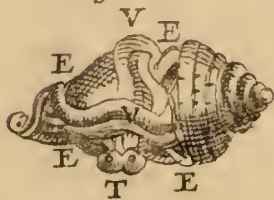


Fig. 7.

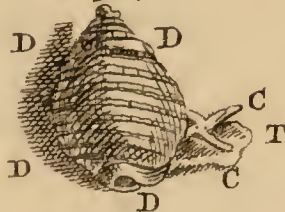


Fig. 5.



Fig. 6.



Fig. 9.



A N ABRIDGMENT OF THE

PHILOSOPHICAL MEMOIRS of the ROYAL
ACADEMY of SCIENCES at *Paris*, for
the Year 1711.

I. *Observations on the height of the water which fell at the observatory during the year 1710, with those on the thermometer and barometer, by M. de la Hire*.*

THESE are the observations of the quantity of water, and melted snow, that fell at the observatory during the whole year of 1710, which have been made in the same manner with those of the preceding years. In

	<i>Lin.</i>		<i>Lin.</i>
Jan.	12 $\frac{3}{8}$	July	17 $\frac{3}{8}$
Feb.	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	Aug.	37 $\frac{3}{8}$
March	14 $\frac{1}{8}$	Sept.	15 $\frac{3}{4}$
April	17 $\frac{3}{4}$	Oct.	11 $\frac{3}{8}$
May	12	Novem.	21 $\frac{1}{8}$
June	9	Dec.	17

The sum total of water of the whole year, 188 lines $\frac{2}{4}$, or 15 inches 8 lines $\frac{3}{4}$.

These observations shew us that the year 1710 has been one of the driest that we have had a great while, in comparison to the 19 inches of water which commonly falls. The year however has been very fruitful in grain, as it always happens in

* Jan. 9, 1711.

these

these countries, because the greatest part of the grounds are cool and moist.

There fell no snow at the end of the year, but at the begining of it, about the middle of *January*, it snowed moderately; which gave me the opportunity of making the following experiments.

The 10th of *January* in the morning I covered the ball of my thermometer, which is always exposed in the open tower of the observatory, with a very great quantity of snow, and after having left it there full 3 hours, I did not observe that the spirit of wine had changed its height in the tube; it then remained at 27 parts, and it begins to freeze in the country when it is at 32, by which we see that the air was not much colder, than in the beginning of the frost; and altho' the thermometer always rises from the morning 'till noon, and afterwards it does not change its height for 3 hours, because the degree of cold of the snow kept it always in the same state, the small increase of heat of the air, not being capable of penetrating in so short a time, the mass of snow which was about the ball.

But the air being extremely cool till the next day, the 11th of this month, this thermometer being then at $14\frac{1}{2}$ parts, which marked a great cold, I repeated the experiment of the preceding day, and there happened the same thing, the thermometer remaining at the same height, in the snow as it was out of it; from whence I conjecture that the cold of the snow is not a cold that is proper to it, but that it only takes the degree of cold of the air as it then is, because it is rare enough to leave the air at liberty to insinuate itself by degrees into all its parts; thus the snow will contribute nothing to the cold, except the pre-
serving

-serving the coldness of the air for some time in the same state.

There was not any thing considerable to remark upon the winds, except that *October* 11th, there was a sort of hurricane, the wind being at S. S. W. without rain.

The thermometer marked the greatest cold of the year, *January* the 11th, being fallen to $14\frac{1}{2}$ parts, which marks a great cold; but the 12th it rose again to 27, where it was the 10th and from that time the cold was moderate.

As for the heat, it was also moderate during the whole summer, the greatest was mark'd by the thermometer at 61 parts the 3d of *August* at sun-rise, and at $2^h\frac{1}{2}$ P. M. the thermometer was at $71\frac{1}{2}$ parts; thus the cold was greater than the heat, in proportion to the mean state, where it is at 48, but it lasted only one day, as I have just related.

My common barometer which is always placed at the top of the hall of the observatory, was at the highest at 28 inches 3 lines $\frac{1}{6}$ *January* the 3d. with a S. W. which is very extraordinary, for it is commonly rather low than high, when the wind is in the south. It was at the lowest, *March* the 7th, at 26 inches, 10 lines $\frac{3}{6}$, also with a south-wind, and rain. The difference between the highest and the lowest was therefore 1 inch, 4 lines $\frac{1}{3}$ a little less than ordinary, which is 1 inch 6 lines.

I also observed that in the whole month of *February*, when it rained but very little, the barometer was very high as it commonly is; it was also the same in the first half of the month of *September*.

I here again give notice, that when the observations are made, they should take care to strike a little against the wooden frame, where the tube
is

is fixed, to make the quicksilver run to its true height ; for as it always adheres a little to the inside of the tube, it does not move freely, and sometimes there is found $\frac{1}{2}$ a line difference between the height at which it appears to be at first, and the true height where it stops at, especially if the tube be thin.

December 30, I observed the declination of the needle of 8 inches long, in placing the side of the box against the same stone pillar where I generally put it, and I found it $10^{\circ} 50'$ towards the west.

II. *A comparison of our observations on the height of the rain-water, and on the barometer, which those which M. Scheuchzer made at Zurich, in Switzerland, during the year 1710, by M. de la Hire†.*

M. Scheuchzer has sent us this year his observations of the rain water, and of the barometer and thermometer, which he has made at *Zurick*, as in the year 1709. He found the height of water only 23 inches $\frac{3}{4}$, during the whole year 1710, and he adds that it is less than the preceeding year, by 9 inches 2 lines $\frac{3}{4}$, and yet this little height is greater than any of the greatest that we have observed at *Paris* since the year 1699.

I have related in the memoir of the preceding year, my conjectures upon what may cause this greater height of water in the mountains, and therefore I shall say no more of them here. We shall only observe that the height of the rain-water at *Paris* in 1710, was only 15 inches, and

† Aug. 5. 1711.

almost 9 lines, which is much less than ordinary, and less than the preceding year by 6 inches; which agrees in some measure with M. *Scheuchzer's* observations; and shews that at *Zurick*, and at *Paris*, the year has been dryer than ordinary.

He adds, that the greatest height of his barometer was *Jan.* 3, at 26 inches, 9 lines $\frac{3}{4}$, and the least at 26 inches, 0 lines $\frac{1}{2}$, *Dec.* the 25; the difference is therefore 9 lines $\frac{1}{4}$.

I found my barometer also at the highest the 3d of *Jan.* at 28 inches, 3 lines $\frac{1}{8}$; therefore the difference of the height of the quicksilver the same day at *Zurick*, and at *Paris*, was 1 inch, 5 lines $\frac{1}{2}$, or 17 lines $\frac{1}{2}$; from whence we might conclude pretty near, how much higher *Zurick* is than *Paris*, if our barometers agreed.

The least height of quicksilver which I found, was 26 inches, 10 lines $\frac{2}{3}$; therefore the difference of our least heights will be 10 lines $\frac{2}{3}$, which is very different from the preceding; the days were also very different; and the 15th of *Dec.* which was the day of the observation at *Zurick*, my barometer was at 27 inches.

As for the heights of his thermometer, I cannot compare them with mine, for they must have been rectified by one another.

III. *Experiments to know whether the strength of cords exceeds the sum of the forces of the threads which compose them, by M. de Reaumur*.*

We are prejudiced in believing, that a cord composed of different threads twisted together, has a force which surpasses the sum of the forces

* Feb. 21, 1711.

of all the threads which compose it. I mean that if, for example, we make a cord with 6 threads, each of which will bear a weight of 5 lb. without breaking, it is generally thought, that that the cord made with these 6 threads, will bear a weight above 30 lb. several learned men are agreed with the vulgar in this, as I had the opportunity of seeing, by the objections which were made to me by some of the most illustrious persons of the academy, upon a passage in the memoir where I examined the silk of spiders. This passage treated of the strength of the filaments of silk. A skilful geometrician pretended even to have the demonstration of the proportion, in which the twisting is convenient; and I shall often have occasion hereafter for the proportion, in which the twisting increases the strength of the cord above the sum of the forces of all its threads.

It seemed to me on the contrary, that it was without having examined the thing close enough, that it has been imagined that the twisting increases the strength of cords, that every thing being well considered, we shall find perhaps, that far from increasing, it diminishes it; and that this is one of those physical problems which cannot be resolved but by physical experiments. Besides I thought it would be of some use to mechanics to endeavour to resolve them. We might often expose the cords that we make use of, to be broken, if we should reckon too much upon their strength.

All that they do in making of cords, or in twisting the threads about one another, is to put them all in a state of contributing something to sustain the force, or the weight that is made to act
against

against this cord ; and at the same time to dispose each thread in such a manner, that it is easier to break it, than to make it slip, or to disengage it from those which surround it. It is this which gives the facility of making very long cords with very short threads, as we see in the cords of hemp, flax, wool, and silk, for we may look upon the filaments of silk, and wool which they commonly make use of, as little cords ; each thread being pressed against those that surround it, and being twisted with these threads, opposes by its friction such a resistance to the force which draws it, that it is more difficult for this force to overcome the resistance of the friction, than to break the thread.

But does it follow from this disposition of the threads, that the sum of their forces is smaller or greater, than the forces of the cords are ? It is not possible to decide this by reasoning alone. We see plainly that in twisting several threads together, we shorten each thread, and that the cord gains in thickness, what each loses in length ; if we regard the cord only on that side, it is evident that its force is increased. For every thing else being equal, the thickest cords are the strongest. If for example we make a cord by twisting 5 threads about one another, and that the twisting shortens each thread $\frac{1}{5}$, it is evident that the thickness of the cord gains $\frac{1}{5}$ by which the length of the threads are diminished ; from whence it seems evident, that the strength of this must be equal to the sum of the forces that 6 threads would sustain separately.

There is also another way, in which the twisting seems to augment the strength of the cord ; it is because the weight, which draws the cord, draws each thread obliquely ; so that one part of

this weight is employed to press these threads one against the other ; being each less drawn according to their length, the cord which they compose might be in a state of resisting a greater effort, than that which all the threads that compose it can sustain, when they are drawn perpendicularly.

These are the favourable sides on which we can view the twisting: but on other sides we shall see that it weakens the force of the cords, if we would endeavour that in order to a cord's having a force equal to the sum of the forces of the threads which compose it, the weight fastened to one of its extremities, should act against each thread only in proportion to the force of this thread. For if the weakest threads are charged as much as the strongest, or if some threads of equal strength are much more charged than others, they will break, and the weight will fall upon the threads, which before were the least charged. Now the weight that draws a cord, draws each thread that composes it, more or less, in proportion as this thread is more or less stretched, and more or less thick ; and in twisting these threads it is impossible to dispose them in such a manner, that the weakest should be less stretched than the others; sometimes the thickest are the weakest; each thread therefore does not contribute in proportion to its strength to support the weight; and if for example, in a cord composed of 6 threads there are 4 which contribute only half their strength to sustain the weight, the cord must be only considered as if it was composed of 4 threads.

Besides since in twisting the threads, they are stretched; it is plain that the twisting is equivalent to a weight which would draw each thread, and to a weight greater or less according as the tension that it produces is greater or less ; that is, the

the more this thread is stretched, the less it is in a state to sustain a weight equal to that which it would sustain naturally. The twisting alone is sufficient sometimes to break the threads, as we find by experiment, when we see them too hard twisted.

The same twisting, which increases the strength of the cords in some places, diminishes it in others. But does the increase surpass the diminution? here geometry has no effect any further than we make arbitrary suppositions, which consequently determines nothing: we cannot know whether among these suppositions we have chosen those which are conformable to the effects of nature; we must therefore here, as in all other philosophical doubts, have recourse to experiments; those under consideration are simple and easy to execute. I shall relate exactly a part of those that I have made; they will teach us what we are to think of the increase of the strength of cords, above that of the sum of their threads.

Exp. I. I took a bottom of white thread, such as is commonly used, and having cut off a great piece of it, I fixed at one end different weights, from 1 pound to 10; this bit of thread sustained 9 pound $\frac{1}{2}$ without breaking, and it broke when I had fixed to it a weight of 10 pound. It was therefore evident that each of the two parts which remained after the division of this thread, could at least bear a weight of 9 $\frac{1}{2}$ pounds, since they had already sustained it without breaking. I afterwards doubled the longest of these ends of thread, and twisting the two peices together, of which this thread consisted, I formed a little cord composed of two threads, each of which was able to bear 9 pound $\frac{1}{2}$, consequently if the twisting had increased the strength of the cord,

above the sum of the strength of the threads which compose it, this cord ought to have born above 19 pound; it was very well twisted without being too much so. Nevertheless this cord broke when I had suspended a weight of 16 pound to it, and it only sustained 15 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$ without breaking; so far from its strength being increased by the twisting, it was diminished about $\frac{1}{6}$.

Exp. II. I afterwards fixed a weight of 6 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$, to another thread taken from the same bottom, it sustained it without breaking, and broke with 7 pound, I also fixed several weights to 2 other threads the first of which resisted a weight of 8 pounds, and broke at 8 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$, and the second sustained 8 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$, and broke at 9. I took the longest end of each of these 3 threads, and twisted them into a small cord of three threads: the sum of the forces of these three threads was at least capable of sustaining a weight of 23 pounds. The cord nevertheless broke when it was charged with 17 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$, the twisting has therefore considerably weakened it.

Exp. III. Having likewise taken 4 bits of thread, and knowing by the experiments, that the first could sustain 8 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$, and that it broke with 9; that the second could sustain 6 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$, and broke with 7, and that the other two had born 7 pounds, and broke with 7 $\frac{1}{2}$; I made a cord by twisting these 4 threads, I knew by the experiments just mentioned, that the sum of the forces of these threads could at least sustain a weight of 29 pounds; I therefore easily knew that the strength of this cord was less than that of the sum of the threads, when I saw it break after having hung to it a weight of 21 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$.

Exp. IV. To confirm the preceding experiments, I made a new cord as above composed of

5 threads, 4 of which had born 7 pounds, and broke with 7 pounds and $\frac{1}{2}$; and the fifth had born 6 pounds, and broke with 6 pounds $\frac{1}{2}$; the sum of the strength of these threads was therefore at least 23 pounds; the cord however broke after having for some time sustained a weight of 22 pounds. As I knew by the preceding experiments, and by several others which I do not think it necessary to relate, that the thread which I made use of, had in the weakest places sufficient strength to sustain a weight of 6 pounds, and that it was often strong enough to sustain 9 pound; I thought it right to make my calculations, without examining any more the strength of the thread which I used, and that when I should find that the strength of the cord should be less than that of the sum of the threads, by considering them as not being able each of them to sustain above 6 pounds, that I should not run any risque of being mistaken, since I had never found the strength of these threads less, and that I had commonly found them greater. I therefore again made different cords with the same thread, because we cannot too often repeat the experiments, before we conclude any thing from them.

Exp. V. I made a cord with 6 threads; it ought at least to have sustained 36 pounds if the strength had been equal to that of the sum of the threads, and this cord broke with a weight of 31 pounds.

Exp. VI. A cord of 10 threads very well twisted, which should at least have sustained 60 pounds, if its force had not been less than that of the sum of the threads, broke being charged with 50 pounds.

Exp. VII. Having made a cord by doubling the longest of the two ends, which I had left of the
pre-

preceding cord as it was composed of 10 threads ; we see that I made a cord of 20 threads, which could not carry less than 120 pounds, without being much weaker than the sum of the threads, and less than 100 if its strength was not diminished by the last twisting. A weight of 80 pounds broke this cord ; its strength was therefore diminished by the last twisting.

Exp. VIII. Another cord made of 28 threads, which would at least have born 168 pounds, if the twisting had not diminished the strength of the cord, was broken by a weight of 82 pounds ; I made several other experiments, which had the same success, and which it would be to no purpose to relate ; However that it may not be imagined that the cords which I made were too much or too little twisted, and that perhaps the same thing does not happen to the cords of thread, or hemp, made by the ropemakers, I made trial of these last. Among the various experiments that I have tried upon these sorts of cords, I shall content myself with relating the 2 following, because all those that I made have not succeeded differently.

Exp. IX. I took a small hempen cord, very well made by a rope-maker ; it was made of three other smaller cords, each of which was composed of two coarse threads of hemp. I call those threads which are not made of other smaller cords, but are composed of divers filaments of hemp or flax. Having fixed a weight of 50 lb. to the cord just mentioned, it broke in an instant ; as it seemed to me that this cord ought to have been stronger, I suspended afterwards several weights to the longest end that was left ; it sustained 72 lb. and broke being charged with 75. To know if the sum of the forces of the three little cords which composed this, was greater than that
of

of this cord, I untwisted it, and having tried the strength of these little cords by different weights, I found that one bore 27 lb. without breaking, the other 33 lb. and the last 35 lb. The sum of the strength of these 3 cords was therefore at least equal to that which is required to a weight of 95 lb. yet the cord which they composed had first broken at 50 lb. and afterward at 75; its strength was therefore much less than that of the sum of the threads.

As to the rest it must be observed, that if I had sought the strength of the 2 threads, which each of the 3 little cords was composed of; the sum of the forces of these two threads, would perhaps have been found less than that of the little cord which they composed; and that by a reason particular to cords which are made of filaments, shorter than the cords themselves. Which is, that each of the filaments cannot exercise its whole strength, unless the resistance of the friction which it must overcome to slip, does not surpass the strength which this filament has to sustain a weight. Now it often happens, that the threads are not enough twisted, because the filaments of hemp, or flax, which compose them, cannot slip so easily as not to be broken. But when we make a cord, for example, with two or three of these threads, the new twisting which is given them, adds to the filaments which compose them, what they want of friction, and puts them in a state of being broken by a less force than is necessary to make them slide, and when each filament shall be more easily broken than disengaged from those which encompass it, the strength of the cord will always be less than the sum of the forces of the threads or filaments which compose it.

Exp.X. Another cord pretty near the same thickness with the preceding, will also serve for a new proof. It sustained a weight of 70 lb. and broke, about the middle by the weight of 72 ; I fastened a weight of 75 lb. to the longest bit that remained, to see if the cord had not broken in a place much weaker than the rest ; but it could not sustain the weight of 75 lb. Having sought separately the strength of the 3 little cords of which it was made, the first bore 24 lb. and broke with 28 ; the second bore 28 lb. and broke with 29 ; and the third sustained 30 lb. and broke with 31. The sum of the strength of these 3 cords was therefore at least equal to 82, and consequently greater than that of the broken cord by a weight of 71 lb.

There is no doubt but that the experiments which I made, would have succeeded in the same manner upon thicker cords ; the great number of threads, or of small cords, cannot make any alteration. But the experiments would have been much more difficult to execute, and the preceding are sufficient. I shall however relate one, which I made upon a bit of silk, such as is commonly used for sewing ; notwithstanding the smallness of these sorts of cord, we may compare it to the thickest cables, if we only consider the number of single threads which compose it. The threads of this bit of silk were exceeding fine ; it also contained a much greater number of filaments than the bits which I have spoken of in the *Examination of the silk of spiders**. For having separated it with great attention and patience, I divided it into 832 single threads, whereas I never found but 200 threads in the

* Page 41 of this volume.

others. If there was any mistake in this calculation, it could be only in making the number of threads less than it really was, because it might easily happen that the extreme fineness of these threads might make me sometimes take two for one; but this number cannot be too great, because I never counted one thread without separating it well from the others. I had also the precaution to cut it after having counted it for fear I should make a double work of it.

These 832 threads composed two different little cords, which being twisted about one another, made the bit of silk; having successively fixed different weights to this bit of silk, I found that it commonly sustained 5 lb. for some moments, after which it broke; but it was seldom strong enough to bear $5\text{ lb. } \frac{1}{2}$ and in a great number of experiments it was not above once or twice, that $5\text{ lb. } \frac{1}{2}$ did not make it break. Having afterwards examined the strength of the threads which composed this piece of silk, I was convinced by several experiments, that the weakest could sustain a dram without breaking; and the strongest a dram and $\frac{1}{2}$; we see therefore, that if these threads are much finer than those which I spoke of in the *Examination of the silk of spiders*, they are also much weaker, for those sustained 2 drams $\frac{1}{2}$. Since these threads bore at least a dram, and the strongest, of which I found a much greater number than of the weakest, bore 1 dram and $\frac{1}{2}$, it is evident that I am not too favourable to the sum of the forces of the thread, when I take 1 dram, 18 grains for the mean force of each thread. And according to this supposition, the sum of the forces of the thread which compose this piece of silk, was 1040 drams; or dividing this sum by 128 to

reduce it into pounds; the sum of the forces of the threads was 8 lb. 2 ounces. Now we have seen above, that the silk did not in general sustain above 5 lb. and but seldom $5 \frac{1}{2}$; its force was therefore considerably less than the sum of the threads? If we had taken the force of the weakest threads, which was a dram, for the true force of each thread, the sum of the forces would have been 832 drams, that is, 6 lb. $\frac{1}{2}$ and consequently greater than that of the bit of silk.

We may therefore certainly conclude from all these experiments, that the force of a twisted cord is less than the sum of the forces of the threads which compose it. But it is not possible to determine in what proportion the twisting diminishes it, because this diminution depends upon a great number of irregularities, each of which may be combined in many different manners.

These experiments teach us at least, that when we can employ, in a convenient manner, many little cords, and can stretch them equally; these little cords would be in a state of producing a greater effect, or of resisting a greater effort, than a cable composed of all these small cords would be.

Lastly, if we cannot decide what the strength of a cable is, we may decide between what limits it is inclosed, by seeking what the force of one of the small cords is which compose it; and by examining what is the number of these cords; since we have seen, that the force of the cable is less than the sum of the forces of all these cords.

IV. *Remarks on some colours, by M. de la Hire*

The deep purple red only appears bright and shining when it is exposed to a strong light ; but when we view it in a moderate light, it appears to us very dark, and approaching to black.

We also know, that when we view a luminous or very bright body through a dark and rare one, it appears red to us, as when we look at the sun through a smoaked glass ; and we cannot say, that it is the proper colour of this smoke which gives it this red, since this very smoke being mixed with white, makes a colour very much inclinable to blue, which is far from red.

For the explaining this red colour, we must have recourse to what we can imagine of the sensation of red, which is only a violent shaking of the *retina*, with a certain modification, which is not found in the violent shaking of the *retina*, by reflection alone, which only causes white ; and if the choroides, which, according to my system, receives the impressions of light, to transmit them to the *retina*, is very sensible, and very thick, it must happen that the modified light which gives us the sensation of red, meeting this choroides, is intirely absorbed, and shakes the *retina* only as if it was a black body. This is also what we observe in some eyes, which being otherwise very good for seeing the smallest objects very distinctly, see red only as if it was black, and have no idea of what we call red ; and for other colours they see them perfectly well.

We know also, that when we see a black body through a white and thin one, it gives us the sen-

* March 28, 1711.

sation

sation of blue, and there can be no doubt of it, since this is the only reason why the sky appears blue to us; for its immense depth being intirely deprived of light, can only appear to us, through particles of air, which are enlightened by the sun, and appear white. This is also the reason why the black of smoke diluted with white, appears blue; for the bodies which appear white, being always a little transparent, and being confounded with the black behind them, give a sensation of blue.

These two explications of red and blue, shew us why the veins which are seen upon the surface of the skin, especially if it be very white, appear blue to us, altho' they are filled with a very red blood.

For by what I have here above explained, it is evident that the blood which is of a deep red, being inclosed in the veins, is there in some measure in obscurity, and consequently would appear like black, and this black being viewed through the membrane of the vein, and through the white skin, gives us a sensation of blue; which cannot happen to the rest of the skin which is white, and filled with innumerable particles of blood quite to the cuticle, which must appear to us of a white inclined to a vermillion, for these particles of blood are very much dispersed: but if it should happen, by any accident, as by some blow, that the blood gathers together in a great quantity under the skin in some place, the part presently appears bluish, and we say it is bruised.

It is also without doubt this blue colour of the veins, which has led anatomists, who inject wax into the vessels of the body, to syringe blue wax into the veins and red wax into the
arteries

arteries, to distinguish them from the veins, and to shew a little the different nature of the blood of these vessels, for it is much more vivid, spirituous and florid in the arteries than in the veins.

V. *Reflections on some new observations of F. Feuillée made in the West-Indies, extracted from a letter written to M. le Comte de Pontchartrain from Lima, Dec. 7, 1709, by M. Cassini, the son*†.

At the beginning of his voyage he was obliged by contrary winds, to stop at *Sardinia* and *Malta*, which gave him the opportunity of making several astronomical and physical observations, the extract of which is related in the *Memoirs of the Academy of 1708*. He also made several observations in the *Mediterranean*, for determining the latitude of the places where he had the convenience of observing, of which this is an extract.

Height of the pole at Golfo di Palma, in the island of Sardinia.

The height of the pole of this gulf which is between the island of *St. Antiocho*, and the main land of *Sardinia*, was observed to be ————— 38° 59' 24"

Height of the pole at Port-Mahon.

The height of the pole at *Port-Mahon*, which is in the island of *Minorca*, was observed to be ————— 39° 53' 45"

† Dec. 17, 1710.

Height

Height of the pole at Carthagenæ.

The height of the pole at *Carthagenæ*, in *Europe*, was observed in the port to be ————— $37^{\circ} 36' 18''$

Height of the pole at Almeria.

The height of the pole at *Almeria*, which is in the kingdom of *Granada*, was observed to be ————— $36^{\circ} 50' 18''$

F. *Feuillée* afterwards passed the streights of *Gibraltar*, continuing his way toward *America*. He observed during the course of his navigation, that the sea-water diminished in its weight, in proportion as he approached the line. He made daily observations of it in presence of the officers of the ship, and does not believe that the mixing of the fresh-water has contributed to this alteration, having passed the line at a very great distance from *Africa* and *America*. He observed also during his voyage, the variation of the needle, and the place of his course where there is no variation.

The first place where he arrived in *America*, was *Buenos-Ayres*, where the bad weather would not permit him to make any observations of the satellites of *Jupiter*.

Observations made at Buenos-Ayres on the Rio del Plata, the 19th of Aug. 1708.

The height of the pole was observed at *Buenos-Ayres* to be ————— $34^{\circ} 34' 44''$

This observation was confirmed by those of the 20th and 21st of *Aug.* which give the same height to the pole within a few seconds.

The 21st of Aug.

F. Feuillée observed at *Buenos-Ayres* the variation of the needle to be $15^{\circ} 32'$ NE

He observed also, that the needle of the compass dipped at the south point, and made an angle with the true horizon of $6^{\circ} 20'$

Observations made at Monte Vidio, for the height of the pole, the 23d of Oct.

F. Feuillée observed at *Monte Vidio*, which is to the south-east from *Buenos-Ayres*, at the outlet of the *Rio del Plata*, the height of the pole to be $34^{\circ} 52' 30''$

It was observed the 24th and 28th, to be within a few seconds the same.

Observations made at the Conception in the kingdom of Chili.

F. Feuillée determined the height of the pole at the *Conception*, by a great number of observations of the meridian height of the sun, and fixed stars, made in *Jan.* and *Feb.* between which, if we take a mean, we shall have for the height of the pole at the *Conception* $36^{\circ} 44' 30''$

Eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter for the longitude of the Conception, the 31st. of Jan. 1709.

At $0^h 3' 23''$ in the morning, immersion of the first satellite into the shadow of *Jupiter*.

5 5 28 at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

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5^h 2' 5" difference of the meridians between *Paris* and the *Conception*.

The 7th of Feb.

1 55 36 in the morning immersion of the first satellite into the shadow of *Jupiter*.

6 58 8 at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

5 2 32 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and the *Conception*.

The 9th of Feb.

11 0 52 at night, the immersion of the third satellite into the shadow of *Jupiter*.

16 1 50 at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

5 0 58 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and the *Conception*.

The 17th of Feb.

0 34 4 in the morning immersion of the third satellite into the shadow of *Jupiter*.

5 31 5 at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

4 57 1 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and the *Conception*.

The 18th of Feb.

1 45 2 in the morning immersion of the second satellite in the shadow of *Jupiter*.

At $6^{\text{h}} 46' 17''$ at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

5 1 15 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and the *Conception*.

Taking the mean between the differences of the meridians determined by the observations of the first satellite of *Jupiter*, which only differ 19 seconds from one another, we shall have the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and the *Conception* —

$5^{\text{h}} 2' 14''$

This difference being brought into degrees, gives the difference of the longitude between *Paris* and the *Conception* of ————

$75^{\circ} 33' 30''$

By which the *Conception* is more westerly than *Paris*.

Observations of the variation and inclination of the needle, the 27th of Jan. 1709.

The variation of the needle was observed at the *Conception* to be

$10^{\circ} 20' \text{NE}$

And the inclination of the needle

$6^{\circ} 35'$

Observations made at Valparaiso, upon the coast of the kingdom of Chili.

F. *Feuillée* determined by the meridian heights of the sun and fixed stars, the height of the pole at *Valparaiso* to be ————

$33^{\circ} 0' 11''$

Eclipse of the first satellite of Jupiter, for the longitude of Valparaiso, the 11th of March, 1709.

At $10^{\text{h}} 34' 13''$ at night, immersion of the first satellite into the shadow of Jupiter.

$15^{\text{h}} 32' 28''$ at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

$4^{\text{h}} 58' 15''$ difference of the meridians between

Paris and *Valparaiso*, which being brought into degrees, gives the difference of longitude between *Paris* and

Valparaiso ————— $74^{\circ} 33' 45''$

By which *Valparaiso* is more westerly than *Paris*.

Eclipse of the sun, March 11, 1709.

The horizon was full of clouds at the rising of the sun, and they could not observe it till a little after.

The 11th of March.

At $6^{\text{h}} 19' 46''$ in the morning, the sun was eclipsed one digit.

$6^{\text{h}} 27' 37''$ end of the eclipse.

F. *Feuillée* could only observe these two phases of the eclipse; and he observes, that in this country the sun is but seldom seen.

This eclipse having been observed at *Paris*, and several other parts of *Europe*, we have described the parallel of *Valparaiso* in the figure of this eclipse, and found by the phase of a digit, the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *Valparaiso* to be

And by the end —————

$4^{\text{h}} 55'$
 $4^{\text{h}} 53' 50''$
 These

These differences are less than those which are found by the observation of the first satellite of *Jupiter*, to which it is best to keep ; because of the simplicity of the elements which are used for the comparison of these observations.

Observations made at Lima, the capital of Peru.

F. *Feuillée* determined by the meridian height of the sun, the height of the pole at *Lima* to be ————— 12 1 15

Whilst he stayed at *Lima* he observed geometrically the height of a mountain which he found elevated 143 toises, and almost 5 feet above the horizon. He took at the foot of the mountain, the height of the barometer, which he found to be 27 inches 5 lines, which is 10 lines $\frac{3}{4}$ higher than the 26 inches 6 lines $\frac{1}{4}$, which he found at the top of the mountain.

According to the rule drawn from our observations, the difference in the height of the barometer which agrees to the height of 143 toises, 5 feet above the horizon of the sea, ought to be 12 lines $\frac{8}{9}$, greater by two lines than what F. *Feuillée* has found, which makes him judge that the condensation and dilatation of the air in *America*, is very different from that which is observed in *Europe*. We shall not give a further detail of this observation, F. *Feuillée* having a design of measuring a second time the height of this mountain before his departure.

With regard to the height of the barometer at the sea-shore, F. *Feuillée* found by the observation, which he every day made at land, that it is pretty near the same as in *Europe*.

During his stay at *Lima* they felt there several earthquakes, and the 7th of *Dec.* in the morning,

ing, the day of the date of his letter, they had two shocks so strong, that had they lasted a little longer, there would not have been any building that could have resisted them.

VI. *An extract of several observations made by F. Feuillée in the West-Indies, by M. Cassini the son*.*

Since the observations that F. *Feuillée* made in his voyage to the *West-Indies*, which we have related to the royal academy of sciences, he has sent others to M. *le Comte de Pontchartrain*, which he has continued to make in the *South-sea*.

Observations made at Coquimbo for the longitude, the 16th of April, 1710.

At $11^{\text{h}} 57' 36''$ at night, immersion of the second satellite in the shadow of *Jupiter*.

16 51 32 at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

4 53 56 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *Coquimbo*.

The 22d of April, 1710.

At 0 6 25 in the morning immersion of the first satellite into the shadow of *Jupiter*.

5 1 8 at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

4 54 43 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *Coquimbo*,

Which being brought into degrees, gives the difference of the longitude between *Paris* and *Coquimbo* of

73 40 45

* July 8, 1711.

Ob.

Observations made at Coquimbo for the height of the pole, the 17th of April, 1710.

F. Feuillée observed at *Coquimbo* the meridian height of the upper edge of the sun, to be ————— 49 51 50

He continued observing it the following days till the 28th of the same month.

According to these observations, having regard to the refraction, the semi-diameter of the sun, and its parallax, we shall find the height of the pole at *Coquimbo* to be ————— 29 54 30

Observations of the variation and inclination of the needle at Coquimbo.

The variation of the needle was observed at *Coquimbo* to be ————— 8 32 NE

And the inclination of the needle 5 25

Observations for the height of the pole at Arica, the 20th of May.

F. Feuille observed at *Arica* the meridian height of the upper edge of the sun to be ————— 51 49 45

And the 21st of *May* ————— 51 37 34

By these observations we find the height of the south-pole at *Arica* to be 18 28 0

Observations made at Ylo for the longitude, the 24th of July, 1710.

At ^h 9 ['] 24 ["] 57 at night, emersion of the first satellite out of the shadow of *Jupiter*.

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At $14^{\text{h}} 19' 11''$ at *Paris* by the corrected calculation.

4 54 14 difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *Ylo*,

Which being reduced into degrees gives the difference of longitude between *Paris* and *Ylo* of $73^{\circ} 33' 30''$

By which *Ylo* is more westerly than *Paris*.

Observations for the height of the pole at Ylo, the 5th of June.

F. Feuillée, observed at *Ylo* the meridian height of the upper edge of the sun to be $50^{\circ} 5' 30''$

He continued observing it the following days 'till the 25th of *July*.

According to these observations we find the height of the pole at *Ylo* to be $17^{\circ} 36' 30''$

Observations of the variation and inclination of the needle at Ylo.

The variation of the needle was observed at *Ylo* to be $6^{\circ} 38''$ NE and the inclination of the needle 345°

These observations, added to those which we have already related, determine more particularly the situation of the west coast of *South America*, which 'till now has been but little known.

VII. *Experiments on the thermometer, by M. de la Hire the son*.*

A canon of *Chartres* one of my friends, and an excellent naturalist, wrote to me in *February* 1709, that having seen the papers that *M. Nuguet*

* *June* 13th, 1711.

had

had published, where he gave the construction of a new thermometer, which as he pretended was free from the faults of others, and that having also seen the reflections that I have given upon this thermometer, printed in the *memoirs of the Academy* of 1706, he had a mind to examine whether this new thought, so opposite to that of M. *Amontons*, was founded upon any certain principle.

He took for his experiments a thermometer which he had caused to be made at *Chartres*, from one of those of M. *Amontons*, the ball of which was 13 lines outside diameter, and the tube 3 feet 2 inches long, to $\frac{2}{3}$ of a line of inside diameter.

The 7th of *December* 1708, he put this thermometer into water, which he let freeze, without taking notice at what height the spirit of wine was in the tube, and when the water was perfectly frozen, the spirit of wine was at 11 inches 7 lines above the ball; he afterwards melted the ice from the thermometer, by holding it to the fire, and believed that the spirit of wine could not descend lower in this thermometer; not imagining that there could be a greater cold than that of water very hard frozen.

He afterwards exposed this thermometer to the cold of the following days, and found that the spirit of wine fell in the tube to 1 inch lower than it had fallen being in water very hard frozen, that is, 1 inch below the 11 inches 7 lines; he believed that the cause of this effect proceeded from this, that the water was not perfectly frozen in its whole mass, for this reason he repeated the preceding experiment.

January the 8th 1709, the cold being very great, at 3 in the morning he put the same ther-

mometer, of which the spirit of wine was at 9 inches 8 lines above the ball, into water which was frozen in a very little time, and examining very attentively what should happen to the spirit of wine in the tube, he saw that in less than half a quarter of an hour, the spirit of wine rose 2 inches $\frac{1}{2}$ a line above the 9 inches 8 lines. An hour after, it was also risen $\frac{1}{2}$ a line more, at noon another $\frac{1}{2}$ line, and at half an hour after 9 at night, it was risen 2 inches 4 lines $\frac{1}{3}$ above the nine inches 8 lines. He left this thermometer all night to the air and in the ice, the cold being very great, so that the ice swelled and raised itself above the edge of the vessel, and the next day in the morning about the sun's rising, he found that the spirit of wine was risen in the tube more than 2 feet above the ball, and that it was interrupted with many bubbles of air very much extended. He here finished his experiment, and wanting to disengage the thermometer from the ice, he broke it.

This experiment did nothing but puzzle my friend, for he saw the contrary happen to what he expected, and to what had happened in the first experiment, since instead of seeing the spirit of wine sunk in the tube after the thermometer was in the ice, he saw it rise continually to the height of above 2 feet, and interrupted with many bubbles of air, which made him think that the ice had perhaps made the spirit of wine ferment, from whence he concluded that *M. Nuguet*, who made use of the cold of water in which he put ice to construct his thermometer, would have found it difficult always to meet with the same degree of cold.

I answered my friend some days after, and acquainted him that the experiment had surprized me,

me, and that I did not believe the great cold had caused a fermentation in the spirit of wine, but I was persuaded that what made it rise 2 inches $\frac{1}{2}$ a line, during the first half quarter of an hour, that the thermometer was in the water, was, that when he had put it in, the spirit of wine, which was extremely condensed by the great cold, because it was exposed to the air, and the water was not, had in a manner thawed, that is, the particles of cold which were within, had gone out, and were joined to those of the water, which was not so cold as the spirit of wine, since it was not frozen, as it happens to fruits that are frozen, when they are put into water that is near freezing.

As to the elevation of the other 4 lines, which the spirit of wine rose in the tube, during the rest of the day, it might very well come from this, that the water being afterwards frozen very hard, it had according to custom increased its bulk, and made an effort against the sides of the vessel, and against the ball of the thermometer, of which it had by this means diminished the bulk.

After having given him a reason for the elevation during the day, it remained to explain how the spirit of wine had been able to rise to so great a height in the night, and from whence the bubbles of air came, which were found mixed with it.

I could not find a more probable explication, not knowing how to admit the fermentation, unless it was that the water having continued to freeze more and more, had considerably increased its bulk, so that the sides of the vessel not being able to give way, the whole effort was united against the ball of the thermometer, which

not having strength enough to resist it, for want perhaps of not having been perfectly spherical, or of the same thickness in its whole extent, was broken; and then the pressure of the ice, joined with many bubbles of air which escaped from it one after another, and were entered into the spirit of wine, had obliged it to rise in the tube to so great an height, being interrupted with bubbles of air.

These were the reasons I then made use of, to explain to my friend the experiments he had communicated to me; however, as I was afraid of being mistaken in my conjectures, I resolved the next winter to make his experiment; but having only one cold day in 1710, I could not execute what I had projected, and was obliged to defer it till this year 1711, in which we have had some days cold enough do it.

The 2d of *February* at 11 in the morning the thermometer, which always is in the east tower of the observatory, and with which we make our experiments, being at $24 \frac{1}{2}$ parts, I exposed upon the window of this tower, which looks to the north, an iron mortar full of water, in the middle of which I had suspended the ball of a thermometer which I had carried into the caves of the observatory, to have a fixed point from whence I might measure the fallings and risings of the spirit of wine in the tube, because we know that the temperature of the air never changes in these caves, and that it is taken for a mean state.

After the thermometer had been a quarter of an hour in the water, upon which there began to be formed a crust of ice, I found that the spirit of wine was fallen in the tube 3 inches 1 line below the mean state, I continued observing

-serving it every quarter of an hour, 'till 5 in the afternoon, to see the alterations which might happen to it, but I did not observe any during the whole time, and the spirit of wine always remained at the same place, 'tho the water was continually more and more frozen, and then seemed to me entirely so through the mass; the thermometer with which we made our experiments had not changed since the morning, and had always remained at $24 \frac{1}{2}$ parts.

I left my thermometer in experiment, in the same place, all night, between the second and third, and the 3d at 8 in the morning, our common thermometer being at 21 parts, that is at $3 \frac{1}{2}$ parts lower than the preceding day, I found that which was in experiment in the ice, the surface of which was split in many places, probably by the strength of the cold, was sunk 5 inches 10 lines $\frac{2}{3}$ below the mean state, and consequently 2 inches 9 lines $\frac{2}{3}$ lower than the preceding day.

The same day at 11 in the morning, I put the thermometer, that was in experiment, near our common thermometer, which was at $24 \frac{1}{2}$ parts, as the preceding day; and after having left it there some time, I found that which was in experiment risen again to 13 lines above what it was at 8 in the morning; ever since I have always left them together to compare them.

The 4th, at three quarters after seven in the morning, the common thermometer was $23 \frac{1}{2}$ parts, and that which was in experiment was 3 inches 8 lines below the mean state.

The 5th, at half an hour after seven in the morning, the common thermometer was at $26 \frac{1}{2}$ parts, and that which was in experiment was 3 inches 8 lines below the mean state.

The

The 6th, at half an hour after seven in the morning, the common thermometer was at $25 \frac{1}{2}$ parts, and that which was in experiment was 3 inches 11 lines below the mean state.

The 7th, at half an hour after seven in the morning, the common thermometer was at $23 \frac{1}{2}$ parts, and that in experiment was 4 inches 3 lines below the mean state.

The 8th, at three quarters after seven in the morning, the common thermometer was at 23 parts, and that in experiment, was at 4 inches 3 lines $\frac{1}{2}$ below the mean state.

The 9th, at three quarters after seven in the morning, the common thermometer was at 30 parts, and that which was in experiment was at 3 inches 1 line $\frac{1}{2}$ below the mean state.

The 10th, at noon, the common thermometer was at 40 parts and $\frac{1}{2}$, and that which was in experiment was at 1 inch 9 lines $\frac{1}{4}$ below the mean state, and was plunged in the water which was come from the ice in the mortar, and was melted during the preceding night.

In comparing these experiments together, we see that the thermometer which was in the ice has pretty well followed that which was not, when the cold became greater; but when it diminished, that which was in the ice did not follow it so well, and it could not rise so easily as the other, because of the cold of the ice, which surrounded it.

I was surprized the 2d of *February*, when I put my thermometer into experiment, to see that a quarter of an hour after it was put there, during which time it had sunk, because before that time it had been in a place less cold than the open air, it did not change for six hours, altho' the water was entirely frozen, but the experiments

periments which I made afterwards shewed me the reason of it, by letting me see that the degree of cold of the air, which did not change in these six hours, was greater than was necessary to freeze the water, and so the thermometer which was within, could not receive any impression from it; yet it happened quite the contrary to that of my friend, for during the first quarter of an hour, it rose instead of falling, from whence it must be concluded, that the water was less cold than the spirit of wine of the thermometer, which was exposed to the air, and it really was so, for it froze in a very little time; but it ought to have sunk afterwards, since the cold passed through the ice, which did not happen, by the reasons which are related at the beginning of this memoir.

As to the great height where he found the spirit of wine, interrupted by great bubbles of air in the tube, the next morning, it does not appear to me that this effect could proceed from any other cause than the breaking of the ball, as it is here above observed, since the temperature of the air had hardly changed from that day to the next.

It does not seem to me, that it can be said, that the cold of ice is always the same cold, since we have seen by the experiments just mentioned, that the greater or less cold of the air, is very suddenly felt upon the ball of the thermometer which is inclosed in the ice, and if the spirit of wine is susceptible of alteration through the solid ice, what will it not be when it shall be broken, or put into water.

VIII. *New experiments on the dilatation of the air, made by M. Scheuchzer, upon the mountains of Switzerland, with reflections thereon, by M. Maraldi *; translated by Mr. Chambers.*

M. Scheuchzer having sent several experiments on the dilatation of the air, made on the mountains of Switzerland, in September 1710, to the Abbé Bignon, who desired M. Scheuchzer to make some further observations, to learn whether the dilatation of the air at great heights follow the same proportion, as near the surface of the earth.

Accordingly with a tube 33 inches long, and 2 lines in diameter, he observed the height of the mercury *in vacuo*, at seven different stations, making the common observations at each station, of the dilatation of the air, by leaving first 3 inches of natural air in the tube, then 6 inches, then 9, and so successively to 30. And he measured the height at which the mercury stood in the tube, after the dilatation, as well as the space possessed by the dilated air, after the inversion in the lowest of these stations, the mercury stood *in vacuo* at 26 inches, 7 lines $\frac{1}{2}$, and in the highest at 21 inches 6 lines, so that the difference between the height of mercury *in vacuo*, was 5 inches; now to find whether the common rule of the dilatation of the air among us, be conformable to the observations of M. Scheuchzer, I calculated the space which the air was to possess in the tube after dilatation, according to this rule, and compared them with the observations themselves.

* March 27, 1711.

By this comparison it appears that the *calculus*, only agrees with observation in the dilatations answering to the 3 first inches of natural air, in the rest the dilatation observed is less than that of the rule, as far as the 18th inch of natural air, where they agree with each other within one or two lines; but from the 18th to the 30th inch of natural air, the dilatation observed is always greater than that calculated, contrary to what obtains in the first 18 inches, the greatest excess of the *calculus* above observation was at the 9th and 10 inch, and was at 8 or 9 lines, and the greatest deficiency of the *calculus* with regard to observation was 10 or 11 lines, at the 24th and 27th inch of natural air:—Which shew that at great heights the air does not dilate at the same rate as it does near the surface of the earth, and consequently that the rule is not general for the whole compass of the air in any climate.

In a former memoir for the year 1709, we have also shewn that this rule does not hold even in air, much at the same height, but in climates very different from our own, as that of *Malacca* in the *East-Indies*, here by other observations like those of M. *Scheuchzer*'s three inches of natural air, after their dilatation possess'd a space of 7 inches 5 lines in the tube, whereas by the rule it should have possess'd 9 inches 6 lines $\frac{1}{2}$, the difference therefore between the observation and rule is 2 inches 1 line.———So 6 inches of natural air after dilatation possess'd 10 inches 9 lines; whereas by the rule the dilatation should have been 13 inches 3 lines, the difference is 2 inches 5 lines, by which the dilatation of the rule comes short of that found by observation, and the like is found in several observations made at

154 *The HISTORY and MEMOIRS of the Malacca*, and calculated in the memoir above mentioned, which shews that in the air of *Malacca* the dilatation is much greater than in ours, and even than what is found in M. *Scheuchzer's* observations.

There is some conformity however between the observations of *Malacca* and those of *Zurick* ; at *Malacca*, where the dilatation of the air is different from that of *Paris*, the variation of the barometer is less than at *Paris*, and the same holds with the observations of *Zurick*, where the dilatation of the air is different from what it is at *Paris*, and the variation of the barometer less than what is found either at *Genoa* or at *Paris* ; 'tis true at *Malacca* the dilatation is different from what it is at *Zurick*, the dilatation observed at the former place being always less than what arises from the *Calculus*, whereas by M. *Scheuchzer's* observations, the dilatation observed proves less than the calculated one to a certain term, after which it is greater——'Tis observable that at the lowest place where M. *Scheuchzer* made his observations, the dilatation of the air proceeds differently from what it does at *Paris*; though the difference in the height of the mercury, at those two places, be only 2 inches, and yet the dilatation proceeds alike at the several stations, observed by M. *Scheuchzer*, tho' the difference between the highest and lowest place answered to above 5 inches of mercury, whence it may be inferr'd, that near the surface of the earth, the air varies even in the same climate, but that 'tis more uniform at a great height therefrom.

M. *Scheuchzer* made some experiments in an iron mine, where the air was very hot, on account of the fire kept therein to melt the oar, and found the

the height of the mercury in *vacuo*, as well as the dilatation of the air, the same as they were out of the mine in the open air, which agrees with the experiments related in the memoirs of the year 1709, whereby it appears that a great heat, as that of boiling water, makes no sensible alteration in the dilatation of the air.

IX. *Observations of some eclipses of the planets and fixed stars by the moon, made in several places, compared together to determine the differences of the meridians, by M. Cassini the son*.*

The observations of the eclipses of the stars by the moon, made in several places, being very proper for determining the geographical longitudes of those places; we have thought it necessary to compare many of those which have been hitherto made, to draw this advantage from them.

Among these observations there are several which are related in the *Journaux des Sçavans*, in the *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, and in the *Leipsick Acts*, from which we have extracted those which have been made at the same time in several places.

Observations of the eclipse of the Pleiades by the moon, made at Paris, and at Dantzick, the 23d of Aug. 1701.

At ^h 13 ['] 31 ["] 23 at *Paris* the bright star of the *Pleiades* of the thir d magnitude called *Alcyone* by *Riccioli*, enters into the bright part of the moon.

* Jan. 24, 1711.

^h 15 ['] 0 ["] 0 at *Dantzick*, *Alcyone* enters into
the bright part of the moon.

16 6 55 at *Dantzick*, emerfion from the
dark part.

To find by the means of this obser-
vation the difference of the meridians
between *Paris* and *Dantzick*; they
first determined the passage of this ftar
over the meridian which happened at

<i>Paris</i> at	_____	^h 17 ['] 15 ["] 34
Its right afcenfion	_____	52° 4 30
And its declination	_____	23° 3 41

They have alfo calculated the right afcenfion
and the declination of the moon fome hours be-
fore or after its conjunction, its diameter, and ho-
rizontal parallax.

By this means they have placed in a figure
which represents the projection of the earth in the
orb of the moon, the parallels of *Paris* and
Dantzick, and the line that the moon described
in paffing by this projection.

According to this figure, the immer-
fion of this ftar ought to have hap-
pened at *Dantzick* at

^h 13 ['] 56 ["] 0

Which gives the difference of the
meridians between *Paris* and this city

1 4 0

By which *Dantzick* is more eafterly, becaufe
the hour obferved exceeds that which is marked
upon the path of the moon prepared for the
meridian of *Paris*.

The fame day

^h 12 ['] 55 ["] 25 at *Paris*, *Merope* enters into the
bright part of the moon.

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^h 14 ['] 24 ["] 30 at *Dantzick* immersion of *Me-
rope* into the bright part of the
moon.

15 15 20 at *Dantzick* emerfion out of the
dark part.

The paffage of this ftar over the
meridian happened at ^h 17 ['] 14 ["] 26
its right afcenfion was [°] 51 ['] 47 ["] 25
and its northern declination [°] 22 ['] 51 ["] 55

By the immerfion of this ftar into
the bright part of the moon, we fhall
have the difference of the meridians
between *Paris* and *Dantzick* to be ^h 1 ['] 4 ["] 34

The fame Day,

^h 12 ['] 21 ["] 20 at *Paris* immerfion of *Eleetra*,
into the bright part of the moon.

13 40 0 at *Dantzick*, immerfion of *Eleetra*
into the bright part of the moon.

14 50 0 at *Dantzick* emerfion out of
the dark part.

The paffage of this ftar over the
meridian happened at ^h 17 ['] 12 ["] 56
its right afcenfion was [°] 51 ['] 25 ["] 6
and its northern declination [°] 22 ['] 51 ["] 55

By the immerfion of this ftar into
the bright part of the moon, we fhall
have the difference of the meridians
between *Paris* and *Dantzick*. ^h 1 ['] 2 ["] 55

*Eclipse of Mars by the Moon, observed at Dantzick,
Oxford, and Greenwich, the 31st of Auguft,
1676.*

^h 13 ['] 35 ["] 42 at *Dantzick* immerfion of *Mars*
into the bright part of the moon.

14 46 29 emerfion out of the dark part.

^h 12 ['] 10 ["] 42 at *Oxford* immersion of *Mars*,
into the bright part of the moon.

13 10 41 emerfion out of the dark part.

12 14 58 at *Greenwich* immersion of
Mars into the bright part of the
moon.

13 10 51 emerfion out of the dark part.

There is an error in the hour of this
observation, for inſtead of — ^h 13 ['] 10 ["] 51

We muſt read ——— ^h 13 ['] 15 ["] 51

Which we ſee by comparing the
hour obſerved with the corrected hour,
the difference between theſe hours
which in all the obſervations is

0 4 55

In this being only ——— 0 0 5

Having calculated the right aſcenſion, and the
declination of *Mars*, and of the moon, at the
time of its conjunction, and ſome hours before or
after, they deſcribed the path of the moon, in
a figure which repreſents the projection of the
earth in the orb of the moon, and they have
there determined the north pole, and the parallels
of *Dantzick*, *Oxford*, and *Greenwich*.

By the immersion of *Mars* obſerved
at *Dantzick*, and at *Greenwich*, they
find the difference of the meridians
between theſe places ———

^h 1 ['] 15 ["] 12

And by the emerfion ——— ^h 1 ['] 15 ["] 0

By the immersion of *Mars*, obſerved
at *Dantzick* and *Oxford*, they find the
difference of the meridians between
theſe two cities ———

1 20 23

And by the emerfion ——— 1 20 20

This obſervation is related in the *Journal des
Scavans* of the 18th of *Jan.* 1677, where it is
remarked that *Dr. Halley* having carefully con-
ſidered

sidered the parallaxes of the moon in the observations of this eclipse made at *Oxford*, at *Dantzick*, and at *Greenwich*, he found by the immersion of *Mars*

The difference of the meridians between *Greenwich* and *Dantzick* to be $\begin{matrix} h \\ I & 14 & 50 \end{matrix}$
 And between *Greenwich* and *Oxford* $\begin{matrix} 4 & 59 \end{matrix}$

And by the emersion of the same planet the first of these differences is found to be $\begin{matrix} I & 14 & 41 \end{matrix}$

And the last $\begin{matrix} 4 & 59 \end{matrix}$

These differences of the meridians that *Dr. Halley* has probably found by the old method, which is by calculating the parallax of the moon at several heights, agree within a few seconds with those that I have found by the method of the projection of the earth in the orb of the moon.

Supposing the difference of the meridians between the observatory of *Paris* and that of *Greenwich* to be $\begin{matrix} h \\ 9 & 10 \end{matrix}$

As we have determined by the observations of the *Satellites of Jupiter*, we shall have the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *Dantzick* $\begin{matrix} I & 5 & 55 \end{matrix}$

A little greater than that which is determined by the observation of the *Pleiades* made at *Paris*, and at *Dantzick*.

Eclipse of Jupiter by the moon observed at Paris, London, Greenwich, Nuremberg, Leipfick, and Avignon, April 10, 1686.

$\begin{matrix} h \\ 9 & 40 & 21 \end{matrix}$ at *Paris* *Jupiter* touches the moon.
 $\begin{matrix} 9 & 41 & 20 \end{matrix}$ he quite disappeared in the inequalities of the moon's limb.
 $\begin{matrix} 10 & 30 & 2 \end{matrix}$ the preceding satellite emerges.

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- | | ^h | ^m | ^s | |
|----|--------------|--------------|--------------|---|
| 10 | 40 | 24 | | the first limb of <i>Jupiter</i> begins to emerge out of the dark side. |
| 10 | 40 | 56 | | the centre of <i>Jupiter</i> emerges out of the moon. |
| 10 | 41 | 36 | | <i>Jupiter</i> is intirely emerged. |
| 10 | 42 | 49 | | the nearest satellite to <i>Jupiter</i> emerges it, is $\frac{3}{6}\frac{1}{6}$ distant from <i>Jupiter</i> . |
| 10 | 45 | 1 | | the next satellite emerges, it is distant from <i>Jupiter</i> a little less than two of his diameters. |
| 10 | 50 | 40 | | the last satellite emerges. |
| 9 | 33 | 0 | | at <i>London</i> , immersion of the centre doubtful, because the limb of the moon was not well terminated. |
| 10 | 30 | 0 | | beginning of the emerfion. |
| 10 | 31 | 20 | | <i>Jupiter</i> is intirely emerged. |
| 9 | 32 | 30 | | at <i>Greenwich</i> the limb of <i>Jupiter</i> touches the moon. |
| 9 | 33 | 42 | | <i>Jupiter</i> intirely hid. |
| 10 | 30 | 30 | | A little part of <i>Jupiter</i> emerged. |
| 10 | 31 | 36 | | <i>Jupiter</i> intirely emerged. |
| 10 | 19 | 56 | | at <i>Nuremberg</i> by M. <i>Zimmerman</i> <i>Jupiter</i> touches. |
| 10 | 20 | 47 | | <i>Jupiter</i> intirely hid. |
| 11 | 22 | 51 | | <i>Jupiter</i> intirely emerged. |
| 11 | 25 | 43 | | the satellite which is in the middle of the three emerges. |
| 11 | 31 | 6 | | the third satellite emerges. |
| 10 | 20 | 50 | | at <i>Nuremberg</i> by M. <i>Wurtzelburg</i> <i>Jupiter</i> touches. |
| 10 | 22 | 0 | | <i>Jupiter</i> half eclipsed. |
| 10 | 22 | 30 | | <i>Jupiter</i> wholly hid. |
| 11 | 19 | 40 | | <i>Jupiter</i> began to emerge. |
| 11 | 21 | 20 | | <i>Jupiter</i> wholly emerged. |

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At ^h 10 ['] 30 ["] 33 at *Leipsick*, the limb of *Jupiter* touches the moon.

31 4 immersion of the centre. . .

31 33 *Jupiter* intirely hid.

11 35 0 *Jupiter* entirely emerged. [*There is here an error of the press.*]

11 7 9 at *Dantzick*, the limb of *Jupiter* touches the moon.

7 54 immersion of the centre.

8 39 *Jupiter* intirely hid.

11 49 15 beginning of the emerfion.

50 0 emerfion from the centre.

11 50 45 total emerfion of *Jupiter*.

9 42 13 at *Avignon*, immersion of the centre of *Jupiter*.

10 45 26 emerfion of the centre.

By the first obfervation made at *Paris*, and at *Greenwich*, when *Jupiter* touched the moon, they find the difference of the meridians between thefe two places

['] 9 ["] 20

By the total immersion ——— 9 33

When a part of *Jupiter* was emerged 9 20

When *Jupiter* was entirely immersed 9 34

By the obfervation made at *Paris*, and at *London*, they find the difference of the meridians between thefe two cities, when *Jupiter* began to emerge ——— 9 50

When he was intirely emerged 10 0

By the obfervation made at *Nuremberg* by M. *Wurtzelbaurg*, they find the difference of the meridian between *Paris* and that town when *Jupiter* touched the moon 35 30

By the central immersion ——— 35 0

When *Jupiter* was intirely hid 34 45

When <i>Jupiter</i> began to emerge	'	"
	34	55
When he was entirely emerged	35	0

M. *Zimmerman*'s observation gives a difference of some seconds which probably proceeds from the manner of regulating the clock.

By the observation made at *Leipsick*, they find the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and that town, when *Jupiter* touched the moon — 40 10

By the immersion of the centre 40 0

When *Jupiter* was intirely hid. 39 50

By the observation made at *Dantzick*, we find the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and that town, when the limb of *Jupiter* touched the moon — h I 5 4

By the immersion of the centre of *Jupiter* — I 4 44

When *Jupiter* was intirely hid I 4 39

When *Jupiter* begun to go out of the moon — I 4 55

By the emerfion of the centre I 4 40

By the total emerfion — I 4 15

As for the observation at *Avignon*, it would be useless to compare it with that which has been made at *Paris*, there being probably some error in the time marked by the clock, since the difference between the hour of the immersion from the centre of *Jupiter* into the moon; and that which was observed at *Paris*, is only two minutes.

Taking

Taking a mean between the differences of the meridians which result from these observations, we shall have the difference of the meridians between *Paris* and *London* ——— h ' 9 " 55 to the west.

Between *Paris* and the observatory at *Greenwich* 9 25 —————

Between *Paris* and *Nuremberg* — — 35 2 to the east.

Between *Paris* and *Leipsick* — — 40 0 —————

Between *Paris* and *Dantzick* ——— I 4 43 —————

Eclipse of Jupiter by the moon, observed at Avignon, London, and Totteridge, May the 7th, 1686.

h ' " 15 37 23 at *Avignon*, immersion of the centre of *Jupiter* into the moon.

16 28 24 emersion of the centre.

15 3 30 at *Totteridge*, beginning of the immersion of *Jupiter* into the moon.

The latitude of *Totteridge* is 51° 39'

And according to *Dr. Halley*, this place is 25 seconds to the west of *London*, and is 9 miles distant from it.

h ' " 15 49 0 at *London*, total emersion of *Jupiter*.

Although the observation at *Avignon* was made when the centre of *Jupiter* entered into the moon, and when it went out, we may however compare it with those which were made at *Totteridge* and *London*, at the beginning of the immersion, and at the end of the emerfion, by the means of the diameter of *Jupiter* which was then

0 50

By the first observation we find the difference of the meridians between *Avignon* and *Totteridge*

20 20

By the emerfion of *Jupiter* observed at *London*, we have the difference of the meridians between *Avignon* and *London*

19 20

If we substract from the difference of the meridians that we have juft found between *Avignon* and *Totteridge*, 25 feconds, by which *Totteridge* is more westerly than *London*, we fhall have the difference of the meridian between *Avignon* and *London*

19 55

Taking a mean between the differences which result from thefe observations, we fhall have the difference of the meridians between *Avignon* and *London*

19 40

From which if we substract the difference between *London* and *Paris*, which we have found by the observations of the fatellites of *Jupiter*, to be

9 40

We

We shall have the difference of the
meridians between *Paris* and *Avignon*,
by which *Avignon* is more to the east 10 0

This difference agrees with that which
we have found by the triangles of the
meridian ————— 10 7

A

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T A B L E

OF THE

PAPERS contained in the ABRIDGMENT
of the HISTORY and MEMOIRS of the
ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at
PARIS, for the Year MDCCXII.

In the HISTORY.

- I. **U**PON bees.
- II. **U** On the progressive motion of some shell-fishes, or sea-animals.
- III. On the declination of the needle.
- IV. Of a cavern which is exceedingly cold in summer.
- V. Of a spring which makes the teeth drop out.
- VI. Of the rising of the sea in the streights of Dover, when the tide ebbs.
- VII. On the principal organ of vision, and on the structure of the optic nerve.
- VIII. On the experiment of the eyes of the cat immersed in water.
- IX. On the re-production of some parts of cray-fishes, lobsters, &c.

In the MEMOIRS.

- I. Observations on the rain, and upon the thermometer and barometer at the royal observatory during the year 1711, by M. de la Hire.

II.

- II. *A comparison of the observations made at Zurich, on the rain, and on the barometer, with the foregoing, during the same year.*
- III. *Of the flux and reflux of the sea, by M. Cassini the son.*
- IV *Reflections on the observations of the barometer, taken from a letter written from Upsal in Sweden, by M. Vallerius, director of several mines of copper in those parts, by M. de la Hire the son.*
- V. *A continuation of the observations on the bezoar, by M. Geoffrai, jun.*
- VI. *A machine to disengage the horses absolutely and at once from a coach, when they are head-strong and run away, by M. de la Hire the son.*
- VII. *A comparison of the observations of the eclipse of the moon, Jan. 23, 1723, in the evening, made at Nuremberg, by J. P. Wurfelbaur; and at Paris, at the royal observatory, by Mess. de la Hire.*

A N
A B R I D G M E N T
O F T H E

PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOVERIES and OB-
SERVATIONS in the HISTORY of the
ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at
Paris, for the Year 1712.

I. *On Bees.*

TH^{O'} the reputation of bees is very ancient, and well established, yet they have not been thought so wonderful as they really are; and we may say of them, as we sometimes say of persons of merit, that they improve upon being acquainted with them. M. *Maraldi*, who has observed them for many years, with attention, and diligence, has given a very advantageous and circumstantial testimony concerning them; which we shall reduce to the points of greatest importance, and the most easy to be understood.

The bee gathers both wax and honey from flowers, but not with the same organs. As the honey is a liquid substance, which exudes from the flowers by transpiration, the bee sucks it with a tube from the bottom of the empalements, and attacks only those where the empalement is not too deep for the length of its tube, when it is at full stretch; for it is bent double when the bee is not gathering honey. The liquor sucked up by this tube, is drawn into a little bladder, transparent enough to shew the colour quite thro'. Part of it serves for the nourishment of the animal, and is distri-

distributed into its vessels. We shall say what becomes of the other in its proper place. As for the wax, which is the dust of the summits of the flowers, the bees take it with their fore-feet, and put it into a little cavity, which they have in their hinder-feet. They often squeeze and press it with their feet, not only that they may have room for more, but also to reduce it into a fitter form for being carried away. Sometimes they roll themselves upon the flowers, when they are wet, to carry off little particles of wax, which will stick to the hairs that cover their whole body, and so load themselves on all sides.

When the bee is returned to the hive with its harvest, it either unloads itself in an instant ; or if it is not able, is sure to be assisted by others.

The design of gathering the wax, is to form that wonderful structure called a comb : it is for this, that the bees have always been admired ; and are still more admirable than has been imagined. The hexagonal figure which they give to the cells of their comb, would be worthy of the best geometricians, who know that any number of these figures fills a space without leaving any void ; and that this figure also, which has that in common with the square and equilateral triangle, has certainly the advantage of containing a greater space in the same circumference. And besides, of all the geometrical ways of working, they have chosen that which is at the same time the most simple, and the most convenient for them ; and consequently they have made a very ingenious choice.

Though there seems to be nothing in a hive, but a continual and irregular agitation of several thousands of insects, flying about at random, yet there is in reality a great order ; but it must be

studied with care. The labours are distributed as among the beavers. Some bees bring wax between their two jaws, and perhaps they pour out some liquor upon it, which dilutes and softens it; sometimes the same bees raise from this wax the little walls of the hexagonal cells; sometimes others have this office; but, in short, those which raise the cells are not those which polish the work; they are succeeded by others which are commissioned to make the angles more exact, to smooth and polish the surface, and to give the last hand to every thing. And as this cannot be done without cutting off some particles of wax, and as the bees are extremely frugal, some take care to carry away these particles, which we may be sure will not be lost. M. *Maraldi* has observed, that the bees which raise the walls, work less time than those which polish them, as if the labour of polishing was the least fatiguing.

Their diligence is extreme. A comb of a foot in length, and 6 inches in breadth, containing near 4000 cells, is finished in a day. For this, however they must have all circumstances favourable.

They fasten one comb to the top of the hive, from whence they work downwards, provided the top is not a moveable lid; for if it is, they will perceive it, and fasten their comb elsewhere. It is not properly wax that they fasten it withal; they are very sparing of that, and make use of a very coarse glue.

As the combs are planes perpendicular to the base of the hive, which I suppose to be circular, if there was one of them, of which the bottom was a diameter, or an intire chord of this base, it would cut the hive into two parts, which could have no communication together. The bees fore-
see

see this inconvenience, by not making their combs of so great an extent, and leaving between two neighbouring combs, which are almost in the same plane, a space by which two bees may pass abreast. They also leave some openings in each comb, that they may not be obliged to go so far about. Here is a city built with a great deal of skill.

The cells of the combs are intended for two uses. 1. They are their magazines; they reserve in them the honey, which is to be their nourishment in winter. For of that which they take upon the flowers, and which enters into the vesicle that we have spoken of, there is but a small part which serves for their actual nourishment, they throw out the rest when they return to their hive, and make provision of it. Besides, they keep in the cells already made, the wax which is to be used to make others; or to serve for any other purpose.

2. The cells are the cradles for the young ones. But whence do these young ones come? It is one of the greatest difficulties relating to this subject to make the discovery.

The fabulous traveller who speaks of a nation, where there is no distinction of sexes, and where he could not discover how generation was performed, might have taken this thought from the bees; and *Virgil* was not in the wrong to praise their chastity, or even to believe the fable of the bull, for want of a better. In a whole hive composed of 8 or 10,000 bees, there is but one perhaps which breeds. It is longer, and of a more lively colour than the rest; it has a grave and a solemn deportment, and is what they commonly call *the king*. There are sometimes 2 of these, or at most 3 in a hive, which has caused a suspicion,

that the privilege of generation belongs only to one, for it appears from M. *Maraldi's* observations, that it belongs only to this royal species. The whole body of the people is condemned to barrenness.

Most commonly the king breeds his young in such parts of the hive where he cannot be observed; but when by good fortune he makes choice of others more exposed to view, it is still generally very difficult to see him, because the bees draw a curtain before him. This curtain is their own selves hung from top to bottom, and hooked to each other by little hooks that they have in their feet. By this means they can make such figures in the air as they please. The king conceals himself thus; either out of care for his young, or perhaps through modesty; for there is nothing that we may not imagine of the bees. But however he has not always been able to escape M. *Maraldi's* eyes. He has perceived him to be followed by a court, moving with his solemn air, and depositing in 8 or 10 cells, one after another, so many little white worms, which are afterwards to be changed to bees. Whilst this is doing, it appears by some particular motions of the bees which compose his retinue, that they caress, applaud, or encourage him. After this he retires into the inner part of the hive, from whence he seldom comes out.

By the 8 or 10 worms, which he deposits one after another, in the little time, and in the circumstances that have been observed, we may judge of his fruitfulness during the rest of the time, when he is not perceived; that is, during almost the whole year. It must needs be prodigious. When he is single in a hive, which is most usual, he is the only one that produces: there
comes

comes out of this hive in the compass of a year, one swarm at least, which may consist of 12 or 15,000 bees; sometimes there come out 2 or 3; and yet it is as full at the end of the summer, as it was at the beginning of spring. A new swarm therefore, if it is the only one of the year, must consist merely of the king's family, supposing there are none but young bees in it; and if there are any old ones in it, there remains in the hive an almost equal number of the young ones, which were produced by the king, which comes to the same thing. It is not probable that the king which comes out of the hive with the new swarm, has produced any part of the bees which accompany him. But if there comes in a year more than one swarm out of a hive, they must still be new productions to be placed to the account of the old king, unless for fear of carrying his fruitfulness too far, we should suspect that he has produced more than one king; that there went out but one with the first swarm, and that the other, or two others remained in the hive, and produced their young. If this be so, a king may come forth with an entire new swarm produced by himself, and so be literally the father of his people; whereas the other kings will only be the brothers, because they came from the same bee. Which way soever we take it, they have this particular privilege, that their king is given them by nature herself.

It remains to inquire from whence his fruitfulness is derived, and whether it is from any copulation. There is hardly any hive wherein we do not find some drones, and sometimes several hundreds of them. They are made like the bees, only they are about $\frac{1}{3}$ longer and thicker, and have no sting. They have none of the laborious temper of the bees, and remain absolutely idle.

They

They go very little out of the hive, unless in very fine weather, and return again without bringing any thing with them. Not but that their vesicle is filled with honey, but they are suspected to have robbed the hive of it, because they are not seen to settle upon flowers. And even if they should go to gather any, it would be only for themselves, and not for the publick good; for M. *Maraldi* has found, that upon squeezing their vesicle, there came no honey out of it, as there does out of the bees; and so the drones are not capable of throwing it out again. We might imagine these animals to be the males of the great bee or king; and that they are suffered in the hive only because their idleness would be sufficiently recompensed by this important function. And what would support this opinion, is, that at the end of the summer the bees make war upon the drones without mercy; kill them, or drive them out of the hive without quarter, so that we do not know what becomes of them afterwards. One would think that the cause of their misfortune might be their being become absolutely useless, because they do not perform the work of generation in winter. But what causes a great deal of difficulty is, that M. *Maraldi* has seen some combs without drones in summer, and at a time when the cells were well supplied with little worms.

The mystery of the generation of bees remains therefore pretty much concealed, but the care which they all take in common of their young ones which they have not brought forth, and which belong only to their king, is very visible and remarkable. They seem to be regarded as children of the state. They give each little worm in its cell some drops of liquor for its nourishment, and then make a waxen cover for the cell.

These different operations have their regular times, and are without doubt for the uses of the embyron. We leave the particulars of this to M. *Maraldi*, as also those of the successive growths of the worm, which being at last changed to a fly, pierces the lid of its cell, and after continuing some time in a languid state, flies about with the rest. It is remarkable, that the bees carry their frugality to such a length, that they will not suffer this broken lid to be lost. They take up the wax, and carry it into the common magazine, to be used anew; at the same time they give the cell its regular figure, if it has been altered, and put it in a condition to serve again for the same purpose, there have been worms sometimes running in the same cell, in 3 months time.

The drones proceed from the king as well as the bees; there are in the combs cells larger than the rest, intended for the worms which are to change to drones, and consequently require more room; these worms are produced by the king with the same ceremony, and afterwards treated by the public with the same care, as those which are to be bees; all is equal 'till the end of summer, but when the time is come for the bees to declare war against the drones, their fury extends even to those which are yet but worms; they break the lids which they themselves had put over them, and pull them out to kill them, and throw their little carcases out of the hive, a change very difficult to be comprehended in so wise a nation.

We omit a great many particulars related by M. *Maraldi*, to mention all the wonders of this insect would carry us too far; and how many insects have their wonders yet unknown? and how many others have theirs, which will be unknown for ever?

An explanation of the figures in plate IV.

Fig. 1. The king, or rather queen of the bees in its natural bigness.

2. The drone in its natural state.

3. The bee in its natural state.

4. The trunk of the bee extended in length, and larger than nature, with the 4 branches a little separated from one another to shew them the better.

5. The head of the bee to shew its jaws.

6. The leg of the bee magnified, detached from the body of the bee, and loaded with wax.

7. The base of the cell in a horizontal situation, to shew more plainly the figure of the egg immediately after it is laid, and in what manner it is usually placed upon its base.

8. The base of the cell in its vertical and natural situation, with its egg changed into a worm or maggot, and surrounded with a small quantity of liquor 4 days after it is hatched.

9. The worm enlarged 8 days after it is hatched.

10. The same worm 12 days after it is hatched, having changed its figure and situation.

11. The same worm changed into a *Chrysalis* larger than nature. It represents the bee while it is yet white and soft.

12. The figure of a cell detached from the rest and seen on the outside.

13. A part of a comb which shews in what manner the cells are ranged in the two opposite faces of the comb.

14. A piece of comb which represents the cells seen on the inside, with the apertures strengthened with a rim.

15. Several cells from which the sides have been taken off only to shew their bases. This figure shews how the bases are ranged with regard to each other ; and in what manner the two orders of cells are formed in the 2 faces of the comb. For the angle A represents the concave solid angle at the bottom of the cell in one face of the comb ; the angle B, and the others of the same order shew the solid angle which is convex in the same face of the comb, but concave in the opposite face, and is found at the bottom of the cell opposite to the first.

16. Represents a canal, the origin of which is at A, where the 4 glandulous bodies are, and its extremity in B.

17. Represents a part of the same canal much larger than nature, to shew more distinctly the two wings which are at A, the bag B, and the 2 ligaments CC.

18. The bag A larger than in the preceding figure, to distinguish those folds in which the seminal matter passes.

19. Is the same portion of the canal as in fig. 18. but seen on the other face, where are the 5 portions of black rings, and of the consistence of horn, which embrace a part of the exterior circumference of the canal.

II. *On the progressive motion of some shell-fishes, or sea-animals.*

This is the continuation of a subject begun in the history of 1710*. Natural history is immense, and that part of it which is exposed to our eyes,

* See vol. III. page 321 of this abridgment.

is nothing almost in comparison of what is more concealed, and cannot be discovered without a great deal of time, leisure, patience, skill, and a sort of eyes which every body is not endowed with.

The razor-fish is an animal inclosed in a shell, almost after the same manner as a knife or razor is in a round sheath. This shell is formed of 2 halves of a hollow cylinder, cut along its *axis*, or length, and these two pieces are joined on both sides by a membrane which suffers them to recede a little, and approach again. The animal which inhabits this cylindrical shell, keeps itself always plunged perpendicularly in the sand, but always with its head uppermost. Its head is discovered, not by its shape, but by two tubes, which receive and reject the water necessary for its respiration. The purr which was mentioned in the place above quoted, and several other shell-fishes or sea-animals have such tubes. The lower part of the razor-fish is that which serves for its progressive and perpendicular motion, for it only plunges itself into the sand, or raises itself a little above it. For this purpose it has a sort of leg which it thrusts out of its shell when it pleases, and it is cylindrical quite to its lower extremity ; or, when it is thrust out, it becomes a sort of ball, the diameter of which is greater than that of the cylinder. If the razor-fish has a mind to plunge, it thrusts out this whole leg, and consequently engages in the sand the great ball which terminates it, then it contracts the leg, the extremity of which being engaged in the sand by a great surface, does not find it so easy to rise again, as the shell does to go down. If the animal would raise itself, it only thrusts out at first the part which is

to become a ball ; and then it endeavours to prolong the rest of the leg, or cylindrical part, and thrust it out, and this part resting upon the ball, cannot prolong it without making it go down, or pushing the whole shell upwards. But it is more easy for the shell to rise, than for the ball to go down ; because the ball rests upon the sand by too great a surface.

It is easy to cause these two motions in a razor-fish. When the sea is retired, and has left the hole where it lodges uncovered, which is easily found by its shape, we need only throw a little salt upon it, and the razor-fish will immediately come half out. It is then easy to take it, but if we would see it plunge again into its hole, we need but touch it, and it is the same thing, if we miss catching hold of it. After this, it is in vain to throw salt upon it, for it will not come out again. M. *de Reaumur*, the author of all these observations, thinks it is its aversion to the salt thrown upon it, and its endeavour to shake it off, and get rid of it, that makes it come out of its hole. For he has found, that upon putting salt on those tubes or horns, with which it respire the water, the little cylinders placed end to end, of which it is formed, separate at their joints which have been touched by the salt, and fall upon the ground, or need only to be touched very lightly to make them fall, which destroys an organ very necessary for the animal. It is surprising that salt should be so injurious to an animal, which lives entirely in salt water.

The *dail* is another sort of shell-fish, which is always found plunged in the ooze, or in the *banche*, which is a soft stone, but very hard in comparison of the ooze ; and M. *de Reaumur* proves it to

be nothing but ooze hardened, and petrified by the viscous part of the sea-water. The figure of the *dail*, and of its hole, is almost that of a truncated cone, the smallest base of which is always uppermost, and consequently the *dail* does not come out of this hole. It must have gone into it, or rather hollowed it when it was young, and afterwards have plunged it in farther, and augmented it in proportion as it grew. This is its whole progressive motion, which is only that of its growth; and therefore can be only of an extreme slowness. The instrument with which it bores is a pretty thick part, and made almost like a lozenge, and it thrusts it out at the lower end of its shell.

It must be imagined, that M. de Reaumur made use of some artifice to discover these sorts of operations, which are performed only in obscurity, and in secret. It was by holding a razor-fish in the air between his fingers, that he saw it thrust its leg out of the shell, and make the same efforts that it would have made to plunge itself into the sand; and it was by taking a *dail* out of its hole, and putting it into the ooze, that he saw the action of this part made like a lozenge.

All the young *dails* are in the ooze, and all the old ones in *banche*, which proves that the *banche* is ooze petrified. Very often the upper and greatest part of the hole is *banche*, and the rest is ooze. We may plainly see that the upper part, which receives the impression of the sea-waters more easily, must be the first that petrifies. It is highly probable that the *dails* live a long time, for the change of the ooze into *banche*, which is made during the life of a *dail*, must be made but slowly, and by insensible degrees.

The

The *dail* has also 2 tubes, with which it takes in the water, and throws it out again, and the length of these regulates the depth at which it keeps.

M. *de Reaumur* has observed a sea-star with 5 rays, like that mentioned in the *History* of 1710*; but it has no legs to these rays, and differs also from the other in their being shaped like lizards tails, which is its characteristick. The 5 rays are themselves the legs; the animal hooks two of them to the place to which it would advance, and trails itself upon these two, whilst the opposite ray bending itself a contrary way, and resting upon the sand, pushes the body of the star-fish toward the same place. There are two others which remain useless, but they would not be so if the animal had a mind to turn either to the right or left; and thus we see how it might go on all sides with equal facility, only by using 3 of its legs or rays, and leaving the 2 others at rest. Perhaps also nature has given 5 legs to this animal, because as M. *de Reaumur* has observed, they are very brittle, and have occasion for a reserve.

It is by a like mechanism that the sea-urchin, or sea-hedge-hog walks with 2,100 spines, with which its body is on all sides surrounded. It draws itself with those which are toward the same place to which it would go, and pushes itself towards the same place with the opposite ones, all the others remain without action during that motion. Which way soever it would place its body, it has legs to go in that position. It has the mouth however commonly downwards, that it may feed. Besides its 2,100 spines or legs, there are 1,300 horns, which are of the same use to it as the horns to a snail, or a staff to a blind man, to feel the

* See Vol. III. page 323 of this abridgment.

ground upon which it walks, and afterwards as anchors to a vessel to fix and hook it where it pleases. It is plain, that as nature has set its whole body round with spines or prickles, the horns also ought to be prickly, since the one cannot be in action without the others. M. de Reaumur has subverted a fact related in the *History* of 1709*, on the credit of an able man, which however was false. This difficulty of observing obscure or complicated things sufficiently justifies some mistakes; but if mistakes were inexcusable, it would be still more inexcusable not to acknowledge them.

An Explanation of the figures.

Plate IV. fig. 20. represents a heap of sand, GGGGKKK, which must be imagined to be prolonged a good deal below KKK; in this heap are the figures 20, 21, 22.

Fig. 20. represents the aperture TTTT, &c. of the holes of the solen, called in *English* the sheath, or razor-fish.

Fig. 21. shews a razor-fish rising above the sand, after the fisher has thrown some salt into the aperture of one of the holes T, the fleshy part OO is then puffed up.

Fig. 22. shews a razor-fish rising without compulsion above the surface of the sand, to respire the water; the part which then comes out of the shell, seems to be composed of 2 tubes set close together, AHC, aHc, the first is bigger than the second; Aa are the apertures of these tubes, which in OO, *fig. 21*, seem almost closed, because the animal would willingly hinder the entrance of the

* Vol. III. Page 168 of this abridgment.

salt. CC, HH, ZZ, represent the places where the different portions of which the part Aa, CC is composed, are united together.

Fig. 23. is the part Aa, CC, of *fig. 22*, which we must supposed to have been detached by the salt, applied at CC, Bb is the part which rested upon CC.

Fig. 24. is a razor-fish laid upon the sand; here we see how it prepares itself to begin its progressive motion. P is the extremity of the leg, which comes out of its shell, and is then flatted. In the same figure MMmm shew the membrane, which on one side is fastened to the edges of the 2 pieces of the shell; towards LN there is another membrane, which joins together the two other edges of the same pieces, but this membrane could not be shewn here, it appears in *fig. 25*.

Fig. 25. shews also a razor-fish laid upon the sand, but on another side than that of *fig. 24*. at L is the spring like that of the shells of oysters, and muscles, which fastens the 2 pieces of the razor fish together; from this spring to the other extremity NN of the shell, there is a membrane LNN made in form of an isosceles triangle; at R is the leg of the razor-fish, already plunged in the sand, and hooked.

Fig. 26. represents a razor-fish, which is ready to make one step to plunge itself into the sand, CCCC mark the shell; from the lower aperture of this shell proceeds the leg IRP, of which the part IR is cylindrical, at the end of this cylinder is the part P, which may be called the button of the leg, at OO are the same 2 tubes, but more contracted, which appear at Aa, *Fig. 22*.

Fig. 27. is a razor-fish of which the inner parts are shewn, for it has been opened, after having cut the membrane MMmm of *fig. 24*. in two, this
very

very membrane is here wrinkled as may be seen in MmMm ; and its spring also endeavours to fold it. L is the place where the leg LP is suspended, which here has a very different form from that under which it appears in *fig. 24, 25, & 26*. It is composed of circular and longitudinal fibres, which serve to lengthen and contract it, to thicken and flatten it, according to the occasions of the fish ; at EEII appears the membrane or membranes which form the tubes AHC, aHc of *Fig. 22*. here they are folded, which is probably their natural state.

Fig. 28. is that of one of the shell fishes called in *French Dails*, taken out of its hole. AGP is one of the two pieces of its shell, at ED is the elastic ligament, which fastens the two great pieces together ; DB is a third piece of the shell much smaller than the two others. At AICF is drawn a fleshy tubular part, which the animal prolongs or contracts in different circumstances ; tho' it seems to be but one single tube, it is in some sort composed of two different tubes ; a membrane, of which the extremity appears in C, like a sort of partition, divides the tube from one end to the other into 2 equal parts ; the bending AGP is called the base of the shell, the animal however never rests upon this part of the shell ; and it is called the base only because it is opposite to the elastic ligament ED, and because in another memoir, to express ourselves in a convenient manner, we have given the name of the base of the shell, to the part opposite to this ligament.

In *fig. 29.* is represented a bit of stone or *banche*, inhabited by the *dails* ; this bit often consists of stone from QQQ to III, and the rest of ooze ; OO, &c. are the apertures by which the *dails* send

out the fleshy tube, which they make use of to respire the water, at TTK there are some of these fleshy tubes out of their hole. The *dail*, of which we see the end of the tube K, appears placed in its hole as it is there naturally, half the sides of this hole is carried away, the part AALLHHPP is the part opposite to the part FEDB of *Fig. 28*; LLHH is a membrane, which joins together the two great pieces of the shell; S is a fleshy part, with which it hollows the ooze, ZX is a hole of a younger *dail* than the *dail* KAAPP. V is the hole of another *dail*, of which we see but a part.

Fig. 30. ABCDC is a bit of ooze placed horizontally as it was in the bottom of the sea. CDFE, FEHG, &c. are different horizontal *laminæ*, into which the bit of ooze divides in drying.

Fig. 31. represents the same bit of ooze as *fig. 3.* but placed in such a manner, that the surfaces are vertical, which at the bottom of the sea were horizontal; the different *laminæ* also, into which it divides, are in a vertical plane.

Fig. 32. represents one of those sea-stars, which we have called *stars with rays like lizards tails*, seen on the upper part. PTTRR are the rays of this star. ABDCE is the mass of its body, or if I may so speak, of its back. The letters MM shew some of those extremely narrow membranes, which the star agitates in the water, and are hidden when it is out.

Fig. 33. is the same star reversed, its rays or legs, and its body are marked by the same letters with the preceding figure, that it may be seen underneath; at S is its mouth or sucker.

Fig. 34. represents the skeleton of a sea-urchin or sea hedge-hog seen above; O is its superior aperture. The TTTTT mark the five great triangles, filled with the eminences, with which its

surface is adorned, The t t t t t mark the five small triangles, and the 10 B's mark the perforated lifts, which separate these triangles one from another. At mM one of these eminences, or *apophyses* which are upon the skeleton is represented larger than nature.

Fig. 35. is the same skeleton of the sea-urchin seen underneath; the aperture H is its mouth, at DD appear two sorts of boney rings, out of each ring proceeds a tooth of the animal, and each of its teeth is also inclosed in a boney sheath.

In *Fig. 36.* is a piece of the upper surface of the sea-urchin, represented larger than nature, that the disposition of the lifts or holes may appear better, and that the order of the holes, with which they are filled, may be perceived more distinctly. BB are two of these lifts, which are at the sides of a small triangle t; each lift B is formed of two different rows of holes, some RR are composed of four holes, and the others S have but two. T is the great triangle, which follows the lift.

Fig. 37. is also a skeleton, but a part of it has been taken off, to shew the inside; we may observe in it the same distribution of the great and small triangles, and of the perforated lifts; we have also marked these parts with the same letters as in the preceding figures; but there does not appear upon this inner surface any of the inequalities which are upon *fig. 34, 35.*

Fig. 38. represents a sea-urchin in motion, the letters EE, &c. mark the spines with which it draws itself towards EE, &c. and KKK some of the spines with which it pushes itself towards the same side, the letters eeee are much smaller spines; CCC, &c. are the horns with which it feels the bodies that present themselves in its way. It may be observed that the surface of this sea-urchin is in some measure

measure divided into different triangles, like its skeleton.

Fig. 39. shews a sea-urchin at rest; it is reversed; its mouth appears at BB, furnished with five teeth; at CCCCC there are several of its horns stuck against the stone PP; I is a horn separated.

III. *On the declination of the needle, translated by Mr. Chambers*

M. *Delisle* has communicated several observations on the variation of the needle, which had been sent him by intelligent persons, from different parts of the kingdom, the result whereof is:

1st. That the variation is continually greater to the eastward of *Paris*, and smaller to the westward.

2dly. That from *St. Malo* to *Geneva*, which may be taken for the two extremities of *France*, in respect of longitude the difference of variation is only $1^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$.

3dly. That the variation which is now north-west and increases every year, has increased at *Geneva* much after the same rate as at *Paris*. From the year 1703 to the year 1711, that is about $15'$ every year, and even that an irregularity observed at *Paris* in 1710, when the variation only increased $5'$, was also found at *Geneva*.

4thly. That from 1706 to 1711, the variation has increased at several cities in *France*, much after the same manner as at *Paris*.

To see so many appearances of regularity so well maintained, 'tis hardly possible to resist the expectation of a theory to come, tho' the example of several crude attempts, which have already been made, must induce us to have patience 'till a suf-

ficient number of observations have been made ; M. *Delisle* has given a little history of what has passed among the learned on this occasion ; we shall here only give a short abridgment thereof, and the rather as a great part of what can be said on this head, is already found in the notes of Father *Gouye*, printed in the memoirs for the year 1692. It may suffice for our present purpose, to relate what additions M. *Delisle* has made thereto, whether they be historical or philosophical.

The attractive faculty of the load-stone was known by the ancients, but that other power whereby it points towards the pole was not known 'till many ages after, the earliest author who speaks of it being a *French* poet of the thirteen century, and its variation came 300 years after ; the first who publish'd this was *Cabotto*, a *Venetian* navigator in 1549, tho' M. *Delisle* has a manuscript of a pilot at *Dieppe*, called *Crignon*, which he dedicated to the admiral *Chabot* in 1534, wherein mention is made of the variation of the needle ; this novelty turned all the philosophers against it, as it broke in upon their systems, in effect they obstinately denied it ; but it growing at length incontestable, they were forced to yield.

Hereupon it was observed however, that under the meridians of the *Azores* there was no variation ; this made them conclude, that they had found a natural principle, for fixing the first meridian there, which hitherto had only been done arbitrarily, and consequently not to the liking of every body ; by the direction they found the load-stone at poles, and by its variation that these were different from those of the earth, they therefore placed them where they pleased, with intire liberty which was the fruit of a want of observations.

They



Fig. 4.



Fig. 15.



p. 188.

Fig. 32.

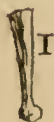


Fig. 37.

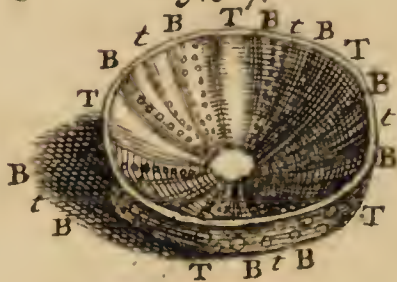


Fig. 38.



But they came at length to the knowledge of two new meridians, void of variation, one passing through a cape situate near the cape of *Good-Hope*, and for that reason called the cape of *Needles*; and the other thro' *Canton* in *China*; accordingly they determined the angles of intersection of these supposedly fixed meridians, the presumption being still on the side of immobility, and filled up their intervals with other meridians, under which there was a variation, and even ranging them proportionably on the supposition that every thing proceeded according to the most natural order, but all this was direct precipitation.

Soon after it was discovered, and principally by M. *Gassendi*, that the variation of the needle had another variation; that it was changing from time to time in the same place, and this continually. A discovery which overturned all they had built. By this instance as well as by infinite others, it appears how slow our progress is, that there is always a considerable distance between one discovery and another, and yet that these distances grow continually smaller and smaller the nearer we descend to the present time.

Of the ruins of so many systems, nothing now remains but that proposed by Dr. *Halley*, who has drawn a line round the globe of the earth, which is exempt from variation; this line is neither a meridian, nor a circle, but a very irregular curve. The variation of the declination in each place require this line to be movable; and we already find by sufficient experience, that it is so. 'Tis probable likewise that it changes its figure, by reason the variations of the declination in one place are not always proportionable to those of another; this line, as drawn by Dr. *Halley*, passes on the

one side thro' the north-sea, and the *Bermudas* islands; and on the other, through *China* about 100 leagues to the east of *Canton*.

M. *Delisle* from some observations made by a *French* ship which went through the *South-sea* to *China*, and was the first ship of that nation which steered that course, has found another line of no variation which traverses the *South-sea* from north to south, much like a meridian; this makes a considerable addition to the system, as well as the chart of Dr. *Halley*, wherein the *South-sea* was intirely wanting.

There is one remarkable difference between the 2 lines or portions of lines drawn by Dr. *Halley* and M. *Delisle*, when compared together, for to the eastward of the line of no variation which passes thro' the *Bermudas* islands, the declination is north-west, and westward of the same line north-east, the contrary whereof obtains in the line which passes thro' *China*; whereas in the other line, traversing the *South-sea*, the declination is north-east on both sides; this difference gives each of them its several character, which, if it be invariable, will always help to distinguish them whithersoever they go.

M. *Delisle* has taken a deal of pains to discover some traces of the motion which these three lines must have had to arrive at their present position; and is convinced that the line which now passes thro' the *Bermudas* islands is the same with that which about the year 1600 passed through the cape *des Aiguilles*, on which supposition it must have moved from east to west, though not parallelly to itself; for in the year 1600 it was almost a meridian which passed through the cape *des Aiguilles*, the *Morea*, and the *North-Cape*;
but

but from that time to this, it has moved 1400 leagues by its northern end, and only 500 by its southern one; so that its present situation is north-west, and south-east; being much inclined to its antient position, its northern end passed thro' *Vienna* in 1638, thro' *Paris* in 1666, and thro' *London* in 1667, which places were all accordingly free from variation in those years. M. *Delisle* is likewise of opinion, that the line which is now 100 leagues eastward of *Canton*, is the same which in 1600 passed through that city; whence it follows, that it has travelled from west to east, contrary to the other, and at a much slower rate. If these 2 lines continue their course, they will at length meet one another, the consequence whereof it is not easy to foresee.

As we have no antient observations of the *South-sea*, it would be presumptuous to advance any thing as certain, relating to the line which passes through it, only it might perhaps be suspected to be the same which formerly passed through the *Azores*, and which has moved from east to west.

The difference of the declination in different places M. *Delisle* observes, is by no means proportionable to the distances of those places from their line of no variation, that is, to a degree of difference in the declination of the needle, correspond very different distances on the surface of the earth. In Dr. *Halley's* chart, the greatest of those distances is 130 leagues, and the smallest 15; but then he has only extended his chart to the 60th degree of northern latitude, and M. *Delisle* who has observations made 20° ——more northerly, finding that there are some degrees of difference in declination which only afford 8 leagues distance; and hitherto it appears, that as
the

the climate is the more northern, the smaller distance corresponds to a degree.

Nor does the declination vary equally in equal times at the same place. At *Quebeck* M. *Cassini* found, that it had only vary'd $\frac{1}{2}$ a degree in 37 years, whereas by other observations in M. *Delisle's* hands it has varied a whole degree in 11 years.

But notwithstanding all this, we perceive a sort of progression, and some appearance of regularity which is enough to prevent a philosopher from being discouraged at the sight of so many seeming anomalies.

IV. *Of a cavern which is exceedingly cold in summer.*

It would be no great surprize to most people, if you should tell them, that in a subterraneous place, a cave for example, it is warm in winter, and cold in summer, which they have met with a hundred times. It is a paradox however to philosophers, who know this experiment to be fallacious, and that in reality it is hotter in a cave in summer, than in winter; but that the difference between the heat and cold is not near so great as in the exterior air; and that this inequality of difference makes the cave appear warm in winter, when one goes into it from a colder air, or cold in summer, when one goes into it from a warmer air. Therefore none but philosophers can be surprised at a cavern of *Franche Comté*, where it is really very cold in summer.

This cavern is 5 leagues to the east of *Besançon*, in that part of the province commonly called *Montagne*, and in a wood near the village of *Chaux*. It is at the foot of a rock 15 feet high;
it

it is 80 feet deep, 140 in length from the entrance to the opposite side, and 122 in breadth. It was in *Sept.* 1711, that *M. Billerez*, professor of anatomy and botany in the university of *Besançon*, who sent this account to the academy, went down to examine it. He found, that the bottom of the den, which is flat, was still covered with ice, which was beginning to melt; and he says, three pyramids of ice 15 or 20 feet high, and 5 or 6 broad, which were now also much diminished. There began to come out of the top of the entrance a fog, which proceeds from it all the winter, and accompanies the thawing of this repository of ice. But the cold was still so great, that unless they walked and agitated themselves, there was no staying $\frac{1}{2}$ an hour without shivering, and a thermometer, which out of the cavern was at 60 degrees, fell at 10; that is, to 10 degrees below a very great cold. The ice of this grotto is harder than that of the rivers, is mixed with fewer bubbles of air, and melts with more difficulty. It is the more in quantity, as the summer is hotter.

M. Billerez has found the cause of this *phænonomenon*, by observing that the lands in the neighbourhood, and especially those above the vault, are full of a nitrous salt, or natural sal armoniac. These salts being put in motion by the heat of the summer, mix more easily with the waters, which flowing through the earth, and through the clefts of the rock, penetrate quite into the grotto. This mixture freezes them exactly in the same manner as the artificial ice is made, and the cavern is in great, what the vessel in this operation is in little. Some coagulations, or stony incrustations, which are found, especially opposite to the opening exposed to the north, by which

more nitrous particles of air might enter, confirm this system still more. It is said, that there are rivers in *China* which freeze in summer for the same reason.

V. *Of a spring which makes the teeth drop out.*

At *Senlisses*, a village near *Chevreuse*, situated in a valley at the bottom of a hill, there is a publick spring, which makes the teeth drop out, without any defluxion, pain, or bleeding. This effect cannot be ascribed to any thing else, for the air is very good and temperate, and the inhabitants are more robust and healthy than elsewhere; only above half of them have lost their teeth. At first they shake in the mouth for several months like the clapper of a bell, and afterwards they fall out very naturally. The water accused of this disorder is very brisk, it is very cold when drank at the well head, it is found to be hard when used in the kitchen, and it is said to gripe those who are not used to it. M. *Aubry*, the curate of the place, who sent a barrel of this water to M. *Couplet*, with an ample account of all that relates to it, says, he had been advised not to make use of it till after boiling, which would cause the ill quality of it to evaporate. He takes it to be a mineral, and conjectures, that it even contains some mercury.

M. *Lemery* having examined it every way, and subjected it to all the chymical trials, has not been able to discover any thing particular in it. Only in evaporating a gallon of it over a gentle fire, there remained 12 grains of an acrid, fixed, alkaline salt, which seems to be very little for such a quantity of water. He found no indication of mercury. Besides, he has given water, in which
quick-

quicksilver had been infused or boiled, to children for the worms ; but he never found that it loosened the the teeth. The ill quality therefore of the water of *Senlisses* is too fine and subtile, to make a sensible discovery of itself to us.

It has been more easy for M. *Lemery* to find a like example. He has recollected, that *Vitruvius* speaks of a spring at *Susa* in *Persia*, the water of which makes the teeth of those who drink it drop out ; and it is remarkable, that he has seen at *Paris* a *Persian* born in that very city of *Susa*, who could take 7 or 8 teeth out of his mouth with his hand, and put them in again with the same ease. He had the scurvy indeed ; and perhaps the spring of *Senlisses* would give that disease, if the goodness of the air, and other favourable circumstances did not hinder.

VI. *Of the rising of the sea in the streights of Dover, when the tide ebbs.*

F. *Gouye* says, that a sailor had observed with the plummet in the *Pas de Calais*, or streights of *Dover*, that the sea rose at the time of the reflux. The reason of a *phænomenon*, which appears so odd, is that the waters, which retire from the coasts of *England*, meeting with those which retire at the same time from the coasts of *France*, swell against each other, and raise the middle of the streight.

VII. *On the principal organ of vision, and on the structure of the optic nerve.*

The experiment of the cat immersed in water, had led M. *Mery* to a new explanation of the motions of the *iris* of the eye ; the same experiment had taught him that the *retina* is as transparent as the humours of the eye themselves ; and thence he had concluded, that it was not made to receive the picture of the objects, and that the *choroides* which is opaque and placed behind it, is fitter for this office : But he had only hinted this thought, and did not pretend to go to the bottom of a question, which had before been handled with great subtilty in 1668, between Mess. *Mariotte*, *Pecquet*, and *Perraut*. M. *Mariotte*, having made a curious discovery of a place in the bottom of the eye, where vision failed, maintained that the *choroides* is the principal organ of it. His observation is known to all, who have the least tincture of natural philosophy.

M. *de la Hire* having given another explanation of the experiment of the cat, than what M. *Mery* had given, occasionally took the part of the *retina* against M. *Mery*, who substituted the *choroides* in its room.

M. *Mery* answered in the first place to what related to the motions of the *iris*, the first subject of the whole dispute, and afterwards he came to the question of the *retina* and *choroides*.

Tho' M. *Mariotte*, who was the first that maintained the rights of the *choroides*, has very well supported them, and seems even to have remained in possession of the field of battle, having answered every thing, and written last, it must be confessed that

that the *retina* has remained in possession of being the principal organ of sight ; as this does not effect the general system of vision, perhaps those who doubt upon this question, or those who are persuaded in favour of the *choroides*, do not consider how difficult it is to change the old and common style, by which the *retina* is established. However, as exactness cannot be absolutely indifferent with regard to truth, we shall here relate what is most important and new in this dispute, for we shall avoid repeating what was said in M. *Mariotte's* time, of which the publick may easily be informed.

The principal organ of sight is that whereon the image of the objects is painted, that is, which receives the *vertices* of different cones of rays, sent from different luminous or enlightened points, this organ must also be sensible.

The *retina* is a membrane formed by the expansion of the optic nerve, which is opened into small slender filaments, white like the nerve ; behind the *retina* is the *choroides*, which involves it, being another membrane, which is a continuation and extension of the *pia mater* ; it is black in men, birds, and some other animals, but in several *species* it has colours, and those very lively : it will not be amiss to observe that the *retina* and the *choroides* are also involved by the opaque *cornea*, which is a continuation of the *dura mater*.

It has appeared to the philosophers, that the *retina* had all the characters of the principal organ of sight. It is placed in the *focus* of the refractions of the humours of the eye, and consequently receives the *vertices* of the cones of the rays ; it is very fine, and consequently very sensible, or rather sensible to very fine impressions, such as those of the rays ; it draws its origin from a nerve, and is
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itself quite nervous, and they are persuaded that the nerves are the vehicle of all the sensations; lastly, it communicates with the substance of the brain, where all sensations seem to terminate; as for the *choroides*, they have either been in no great doubt about its use, or thought that it stopped the rays, which the great fineness of the *retina* would suffer to pass, and that it did with regard to the *retina*, what tin does with regard to a looking-glass, especially in those animals where it is black, because black absorbs the light, and all that could pass thro' the *retina* would only trouble the vision, if it was not deadned.

The experiment of the cat immersed in water, has caused M. Mery to have different notions: he saw that the *retina* absolutely disappeared, as well as all the humours of the eye, but that the *choroides* appeared very distinctly, and even with the lively colours, which it has in that animal; thence he judged the *retina* to be as transparent as the humours, and the *choroides* on the contrary to be opaque, and consequently that the *retina* was not fit to terminate the cones of the rays, or to receive the images of the objects; that the light ought to go through it, and could not stop but on the *choroides* which then became the principal organ of vision. The black colour of the *choroides* in man is also very favourable to this opinion; it not only agrees with the principal organ of vision, that the action of light should be terminated when it arrives there, and it is certain that this action is terminated in black, which absorbs the rays, and does not reflect them, but it also agrees with this organ, that the action of light should be stronger there than any where else; and it is certain also, that as light is engaged in a black body, and does not come out of it,

it, it causes a greater vibration therein. Thence it comes that black bodies are more easily set on fire by the burning-glass than white ones, every thing else being equal. The transparency of the *retina*, and the opacity of the *choroides* were not so certainly known in the time of M. *Mariotte*.

He judged rightly, that the position of the *choroides* behind the *retina* made for his opinion, but he did not draw so great an advantage from it as M. *Mery* did, who has observed in the other senses the same position of the principal organ behind a mean organ, which gives a happy and conclusive analogy. The cuticle, which is extended over the whole skin is the mean organ of feeling, of which the skin is the principal organ. It is the same thing with regard to the smell and taste, which, with regard to the disposition of the organs, are nothing but feeling. The *membrana tympani* is a membrane extended before the *tympanum* or drum of the ear, and closes it; and by its means the agitations of the air are transmitted to the *lamina spiralis*, the principal organ of hearing, inclosed in the labyrinth, beyond the *tympanum*. It is true, the *membrana tympani* is not immediately applied to the *lamina spiralis*, but it is placed before it, which is sufficient for the analogy. The *retina* therefore will be also no more than a mean organ, which will probably serve to hinder too great an impression of the light on the *choroides*, or to preserve it, which is the sole use ascribed to the cuticle, with regard to the skin.

But, according to M. *Mery*, there is more than all that. The *retina* is insensible, because it derives its origin from the medullary substance of the brain, which is insensible also; and the *cho-*
roides,

roides, on the contrary, is very sensible, because it arises from the *pia mater*, which is certainly very sensible.

This proof, which some questioned, engaged M. Mery in a more particular examination of the structure of the organs of sight. He not only shewed the academy, by dissection, that the *retina* and the *choroides* had the origins which he had pointed out, but added also an important discovery concerning the optic nerve. This nerve is not composed of filaments, as has been thought, and as the other nerves are; it is only a marrow inclosed in a canal, which may be easily made to come out. So long as the nerve is within the skull, the canal is formed only of the *pia mater*, and the marrow is contained in it in a lump: but the same nerve, when it enters the orbit of the eye, takes a second covering, which comes to it from the *dura mater*, and is the *cornea*; it is a new canal, which covers the first externally, and there the marrow is inclosed in an infinite number of little cells, which communicate with each other. It is also with more difficulty squeezed out of this second part of the optic nerve, than out of the first. The cells of the marrow have also a relation to the cavernous bodies.

The structure of the optic nerve, unknown till now, does not permit the *retina* any longer to be a membrane; it is no more than a dilatation of the marrow, wrapped up with two membranes, and marrow is not a proper substance to be the seat of a sensation. We hardly conceive that it can serve for any other purpose, than to filtrate or carry the necessary spirits; but the vibration of the sense itself must be made upon a part more susceptible of a strong impression, more solid, and
I more

more firm ; and it has always been thought, that none but nervous filaments could receive this vibration, especially as they have always been allowed also to communicate it to the brain, the centre of the whole.

If the new structure of the optic nerve obliges us to remove to the *choroides* the office ascribed to the *retina*, it will greatly disorder all the common ideas, either vision must absolutely terminate in the *choroides*, without going any farther; or if it does go farther, it spreads itself through the whole *pia mater*. It must be confessed, that these consequences have their inconveniences ; but it is true also, that whatsoever system we take, if we pursue the sensations to the end, and till they reach the soul, we lose ourselves, and fall into the immense *chaos*, which is between the body and the soul.

VIII. *On the experiment of the eyes of the cat immersed in water.*

We saw in the preceding article, the principal part of the dispute between M. *de la Hire* and M. *Mery*, on the cat immersed in water. It has been another question between them, why the bottom of the cat's eyes appeared strongly illuminated in the water, and absolutely disappeared in the air. M. *Mery* pretended, that when the animal was under the water, there entered more light into its eyes, because its *cornea* was more flatted, and in some measure wrinkled by the moisture. But M. *de la Hire* has given a pretty natural reason for it, taken from the principles of opticks.

The *cornea* being in the air does the office of a mirrour, because it is smooth; and of a convex mirrour, because of its figure. It has its *focus* therefore beyond itself, which is also very vivid, and it reflects their own image to those who view it, which by its vivacity hinders them from seeing any other object beyond the *cornea*. But when the same organ is in the water, the little difference, that there is between its density, and that of the water, makes them be physically homogeneous; it is therefore no longer a convex mirrour, and it is only instead of a plain surface of water, and we see thro' it all that we should have seen thro' the water.

IX. *On the reproduction of some parts of cray-fishes, lobsters, &c.*

Tho' the system of the animal quite formed in the egg renders the generation of it intelligible, yet it does not cease to be very marvellous. But that in the room of an organical part which has been cut off, there should grow another quite like it is a second wonder, of a different order from the first, and out of the system of the eggs. And indeed the philosophers have refused to believe so surprising a fact upon the credit of the vulgar, and they must be allowed to be excusable, if the study of nature ought to give them any confidence in their knowledge.

It is of the cray-fishes, crabs, and lobsters, that the fishermen have said, that when they have lost any leg or claw, there came another in the room of it; and M. *de Reaumur* has had the curiosity, the skill, and the patience to verify it; and this

is the result of the observations which he has made chiefly on the cray-fishes.

These animals have 2 great legs before, terminated by 2 pinchers. Each of these legs has 5 articulations, or joints; and I suppose with M. *de Reaumur*, that they are reckoned from the extremity of the leg, where the pinchers are. When the legs of the cray-fishes are broken by any accident, in walking, which is pretty common, they are always broken at a future, which is near the 4th articulation, and in time there is renewed exactly what they have lost; that is, a part of the leg which has 4 articulations; the first of which has the 2 pinchers, so that the loss is entirely repaired.

If the great leg of a lobster is broken designedly at the 4th or 5th articulation, the part taken off is always restored, but not if the amputation was made at the 1st, 2d, or 3d, articulation. The reproduction is then very rare, if things remained in this state; but what is very surprising, they do not remain so. If at the end of some days we examine the cray-fishes, which have the legs broken at these unfortunate and barren articulations, we find they have them all broken at the 4th articulation; and we may suspect them to have performed this operation themselves, being sure perhaps of having a new leg. The reproduction is best performed at this 4th articulation.

The reproduced part is not only quite like, but equal at the end of a certain time to that which was amputated. Hence it comes, that we see many cray-fishes which have their 2 great legs unequal in various proportions. This shews the age of the smallest.

If a reproduced part is amputated, there is a new reproduction formed.

The summer, which is the only time of the year, when the cray-fishes eat, is the most favourable season for the reproduction. It is then performed in 4 or 5 weeks; whereas it would hardly be performed in 8 or 9 months in another season.

The small legs grow again like the great ones, but more rarely and more slowly.

The horns grow again also.

If we add to this all that has been said of the cray-fishes in 1709*, we shall find that they furnish several rare *phænomena*. It appears in general, that the most wonderful of all animals, with regard to mechanism, are those which resemble us the least.

An explanation of the figures.

Tho' the cray-fish is an animal pretty well known, yet we have thought fit to engrave it, in order to shew the position of its different parts.

Plate V. Fig. 1. represents a cray-fish lying on its back, that the position of its legs may be seen.

P p 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, are its great claws, P p are the two pinchers: the little pincher p is articulated in p. At 1, is the first articulation of the leg; at 2, the second; at 3, the third; at 4, the fourth; at 5, the fifth, or the place where it enters into the body of the animal.

Fig. 2. is a part of a cray-fish represented larger than that of the preceding figure, for the better distinguishing of the articulations and sutures of the legs. The same letters of the preceding figure mark the same parts. P p the two

* Vol. III. p. 244. of this abrigment.

pinchers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, the five different articulations, S is the future where the leg of the cray-fish naturally breaks, and where when broken, it is soonest reproduced. This future is more distinguished than the rest in the figure; because it was necessary to shew it; but it is no more sensible in the cray-fish than in other futures; b.c.d.e is that part which we have called the great leg of the cray-fish: b.c.d.e are the different joints of it.

Fig. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, mark the different terms of growth of a leg broken at the future S of *fig. 2*. Each of these figures is what remained to the leg from the fifth joint. 5 marks in all these figures the place where this fifth joint was.

Fig. 3. A shews the end of the leg just as it appears immediately after being broken, or a day or two afterwards.

Fig. 4. B marks the end of the leg, when the membrane which covers it again, has taken a figure a little convex.

Fig. 5. C shews the little fleshy cones which come out of the end of this leg.

Fig. 2. D is the same cone considered some days later; it is more long.

Fig. 6. E is the little fleshy cone, which begins to bend.

Fig 7. FGH is the same part of the leg ready to grow. It is then bent at G; its position is like that of one of the legs of the cray-fish laid upon the back *fig. 1*. tho' the leg in this figure is still wrapped up in a membrane, yet the articulations are distinguished thro' it. They may be seen thro' the transparence of the membrane. If we look at the end H against a strong light, we shall perceive the separation of the 2 pinchers as it is represented in *fig. 8*.

Fig.

Fig. 10. represents a cray-fish in the situation in which it often is when it walks ; TTTT is the great table of shell which raises itself first, when the cray-fish begins to mew ; t t t, &c. are the little tables which hold together by different membranes ; they are joined together in the same manner when the craw-fish has mewed.

Fig. 11. is the part of the stomach of the cray-fish, where the three teeth are, and the cartilages which sustain them, The teeth of the middle B is of a different figure from that of the teeth DD.

A N ABRIDGMENT OF THE

PHILOSOPHICAL MEMOIRS of the ROYAL
ACADEMY of SCIENCES at *Paris*, for
the Year 1712.

I. *Observations on the rain, and upon the theemometer and barometer at the royal observatory during the year 1711, by M. de la Hire*.*

THE quantity of rain-water, and melted snow, was in

	<i>Lin.</i>		<i>Lin.</i>
Jan.	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	July	51 $\frac{1}{8}$
Feb.	51 $\frac{2}{8}$	Aug.	20 $\frac{1}{8}$
March	18	Sept.	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
April	20 $\frac{2}{8}$	Oct.	31 $\frac{1}{4}$
May	32 $\frac{1}{8}$	Novem.	21
June	8 $\frac{3}{8}$	Dec.	15 $\frac{3}{4}$

The sum of the height of the water of the whole year was 302 lines, or 25 inches, 2 lines, which is much more than the mean years, which afford us only about 19 inches. It is pretty extraordinary, that this year should afford us so much water, tho' it rained very little in *June* and *August*, which with *July*, commonly furnish as much as the 9 other months together; and the more as it did not rain at all from *Sept.* 3, to 19; and from *Sept.* 19, when it rained 11 lines to *Oct.* 19, it rained but 2 or 3 lines. But the great snows of *Feb.* with the rains that followed them toward the

* Jan. 9. 1702.

end of the month, gave all at once a great quantity of water, which caused a considerable overflowing of the river ; but it was not so great as that which happened in 1658 in *Feb.* the height of which is marked in the cloister of the *celestins* at *Paris*.

We cannot determine any thing certain on the height of the water to be furnished by a certain quantity of snow, for some is very rare, and some very much condensed.

July 28, 29, and 30, furnished about 31 lines of water ; and this was the greatest continual rain of the whole year. There was a little storm on the 28th in the evening.

My thermometer was at the highest at 62 parts $\frac{1}{2}$, *June* 16, at sun-rising ; and at two in the afternoon it was at 73 $\frac{1}{2}$; which does not mark a very great heat ; for I have seen it rise to 80. *July* 10, when the heats are usually greatest, it was but in its mean state about sun-rising, which is the time when I make all these observations. This very thermometer was at the lowest at 20 parts, *Feb.* 15 ; but two days afterwards it rose again to 36. The mean state of the air marked by this thermometer, as it is at the bottom of the caves of the observatory, when it always continues at the same height, is 48 of its parts or degrees. It begins only to freeze in the country, when this thermometer is at 32 ; so that from the mean state to frost, it falls only 16 parts ; and consequently the degree of heat of the air, which shall be as much above the mean state, as the degree of the beginning of the frost is below it, will be 64, as it was this year nearly about the morning of the day of the greatest heat ; and the greatest heat of this day at 2 in the afternoon, when the thermometer marked 73 $\frac{1}{2}$, was almost as much
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above

above the mean state, as the greatest cold of the year was below it, when the thermometer was at 20, at the sun-rising, the coldest time of the whole day.

The thermometer which I make use of every day for my observations, is a simple barometer, which is placed at the top of the great hall of the observatory, wherein the quicksilver always keeps 3 lines lower than that which M. *Picard* made use of, and in which he perceived light upon agitating the quicksilver in the tube, which was a new *phæ-nomenon*. I cannot suspect that there is any air in mine; for it gives light like the other, and I have filled it with a great deal of care. It must be observed, that in order to have the true height of the quicksilver in the tube, the frame of the barometer should be a little shaken against the wall where it is hung.

My barometer was at the highest at 28 inches, 5 lines, *Jan.* 21; the sky was clear, with a moderate north wind near the ground; but the upper wind was east. And during this whole month, there was but little rain, and the barometer was always very high; for half this month it was above 28 inches. The same barometer was at the lowest at 26 inches, 9 lines, $\frac{1}{3}$, *Dec.* 10; with a very violent hurricane, the wind being toward the south with but little rain. Thus the difference between the highest and lowest state of the barometer was 1 inch, 7 lines, $\frac{2}{3}$, which is a little more than the common state; that is, 1 inch, 4 lines.

I observe in general, that during this whole year, when the barometer was at 28 inches, or thereabout, which happened pretty often, it has rained little or nothing, which agrees with the general opinion, that the barometer predicts the

serenity of the air ; and when it was at the lowest, there was always a good deal of rain and snow, as it happened in *Feb.* This rule however is not so certain, as to have no exceptions, for about the end of *July*, when it rained considerably, as I have already observed, the barometer was about 27 inches, 8 lines ; which may happen from particular causes, which are not common, as a sudden storm, when we often see 2 contrary winds, which having different directions either upwards or downwards, and lasting but a little while, make irregular impressions on the quicksilver in the barometer.

The winds were this year as usual in this country, very often toward the south-west.

Oct. 6, at eight in the evening an earthquake was perceived only in my apartment at the observatory ; and one of the principal signs of it was, that the great rings of a copper cistern struck against the cistern, made a good deal of noise, and continued a long time in motion, which was observed by all who were in the place: but I did not mention it then, because I suspected that this cistern, which had a good deal of water in it, might have slipped a little upon its frame, and that a small motion of the water might have given one to the cistern, sufficient to make the rings strike against the body. But some days afterwards we received letters out of the country, 30 leagues from *Paris*, by which we have been informed of an earthquake which was felt there, and had terrified the people of the place ; and it was on the same day, and at the same hour, that we perceived it at the observatory. We have had accounts of it also from other places, where it was very considerable.

Dec. 30, 1711, I found the declination of the
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needle

needle to be $10^{\circ} 50'$ toward the west as it was the preceding year ; but it must be observed, that at the end of the year 1709, it was but $10^{\circ} 15'$; and consequently from 1709 to 1710, the variation has been 35 minutes, which was about double of what it was observed to be for some years ; but 1711 has set it right, for we have but 35 minutes difference for 2 years. We cannot however suspect any error in these observations, for we always make them with very great care, using the same needle, which is 8 inches long, and applying one side of the square box, in which it is inclosed, against one of the faces of a great stone pillar at the bottom of the terrass of the observatory. We are assured of the position of the face of this pillar, by several very exact observations, that it looks exactly to the west.

II. *A comparison of the observations made at Zurick on the rain, and on the barometer, with the foregoing, during the same year*.*

M. Scheuchzer compares his observations of the quantity of water, both in rain and melted snow, month by month, with what I have found at *Paris* at the observatory which I had sent him by order of the *Abbé Bignon*, whereby we find, that it rained more at *Zurick* than at *Paris* in every month, excepting only the month of *July*. For he found in *Jan.* 34 lines $\frac{1}{2}$; in *Feb.* 109 lines ; in *March*, 44 lines $\frac{3}{4}$; in *April*, 26 lines $\frac{1}{2}$; in *May*, 39 lines $\frac{1}{4}$; in *June*, 15 lines ; in *July*, 38 lines $\frac{3}{4}$; in *Aug.* 66 lines ; in *Sept.* 35 lines $\frac{1}{2}$; in *Oct.* 62 lines $\frac{3}{4}$; in *Nov.* 43 lines $\frac{1}{4}$; and in *Dec.* 25 lines.

This gave him for the whole year, 45 inches, 1 line, *Paris* measure ; and he observes, that it is

* April 26, 1712.

one of the greatest heights of water which has been hitherto observed: but at *Paris* I found only 25 inches 2 lines, which, however, is one of the greatest that has been seen here. I have related in the observations of another year, some reasons which may shew, that there must fall more water and snow in the mountainous countries, than in the plains which are distant from them.

He found the greatest height of the barometer *Dec.* 22, at 27 inches; that day it was here at 28 inches, 3 lines, $\frac{1}{4}$, in the morning, with the common barometer; but with another at 28 inches, 6 lines, $\frac{1}{2}$; the difference therefore was 18 lines, $\frac{1}{2}$. The least height of his barometer, was *Feb.* 9, at 25 inches, 11 lines, $\frac{1}{2}$; and the same day here at 26 inches, 11 lines, $\frac{1}{6}$, with the common barometer, and with the other at 27 inches, 3 lines, and the difference with this last is but 15 lines, $\frac{1}{2}$; but those days are not the same on which I here observed the greatest and least height of the barometer. Thus the difference between the greatest and the least height of the barometer, which I found at *Paris*, is 20 lines; and he finds it but 12 lines $\frac{1}{2}$. This seems to me to shew, that the heights of the quicksilver in the barometers do not always come from the height of the whole atmosphere, which cannot be very different in places upon the earth, which are not very far from each other; and at the same time, but from some particular accident of the air. However, if we took a mean difference of the height of the barometer at *Zurick* and at *Paris* in the observations which I have just related, we should have almost 17 lines; and if we suppose 11 toises of elevation for a line of alteration in the height of the quicksilver, it would follow, that

Zurick

Zurick would be 187 toises higher than *Paris* above the sea.

He enlarges very much upon the meteors, and chiefly on the earthquake, which was felt at *Basil*, of which M. *Bernoulli* has sent him a very exact relation; and this is the result of it.

There were two shocks of this earthquake at but a little distance from each other, *Feb.* 9, between four and five in the morning; we felt one at *Paris*, *Oct.* 6, at eight in the evening, whence we see, that the causes of these earthquakes were very distant. At *Basil* the earthquake was preceded by a very violent south wind, like a tempest, or a hurricane, which was accompanied by an extraordinary heat in this season of the year, tho' it was very cold before. At that time all the snow, which was very deep upon the ground, was melted in less than two hours, and all the rivers, and the *Rhine* itself, increased extraordinarily, which had not been seen till then; but when this wind ceased, the cold began again, and there fell a very great quantity of snow, to the height of 2 cubits. These are his own words. M. *Scheuchzer* observes, that the same accidents of wind, and heat, were also observed at *Zurick*, but he does not say, the earthquake was felt there, he only adds, that at the same time he observed the height of the barometer to be 25 inches, 11 lines.

In the last place, he relates, that the fruits of the earth did not ripen well in his neighbourhood,

III. *On the ebbing and flowing of the sea, by M. Cassini, junior**; translated by Mr. Chambers.

Men have long been enquiring the cause of that continual motion of the sea, whereby its waters in the space of 24 hours rise, and advance, twice towards the shore, and fall again; or retire as often again therefrom.—The motion of the rising water is called the flux, flowing, or flood, and its state when arrived at its utmost height high water. On the contrary, the motion whereby it descends, is called the ebb, or reflux, and when it ceases to fall, low-water.

By this successive change in the height of the sea-water when retired, frequently proves too low in most parts of the ocean for vessels of a certain burthen to enter or come out; several rocks, sand banks, &c. are also covered at certain times by the sea-water, which are left bare at others; so that it is of the utmost importance for the sake of navigation, to be able to determine the periods of the flux and reflux, and to have an exact acquaintance with the several *phænomena* which obtain therein.

The memoir drawn up by the academy, and sent by the count *de Pontchartrane* to the king's professors of hydrography, in the ports of the ocean, has procured a great number of observations of the tide to be made with all the accuracy and success imaginable.——An account has already been given of those made at *Dunkirk* and *Havre*, to which we subjoin several observations, and drew new rules from them. The business now is to learn whether the rules which agree to those two ports, be general and capable of being extended to the other ports.

* April 6. 1712.

There is the more necessity for verifying these rules, as some of them go quite counter to what is commonly supposed, that the highest tides always happen about the days of the equinoxes. An opinion which several philosophers have laid down as a certain rule, and strove to give the physical reasons thereof.

In order hereto, several more observations were required in other ports, like those made at *Dunkirk* and *Havre*; wherein might likewise be expressed, the time of low-water, and the depth of the sea in that state; for as the times when the sea is highest deserve well to be known, as being the fittest for entring of ports; so those when it is lowest, are no less necessary to be known on account of their unfitnesses for those purposes. ——— Something of this kind we have had occasion to examine by a new journal of observations, both of high and low-water, made at *Brest* by the sieur *Montier de Longchamps*; it begins on the 10th of *June*, 1711, and ends on the last of *Jan.* 1712. The times of high-water for every day, both the morning and evening ones are here regularly noted with the height of water therein; and commonly also the time of the low-water, and the depth of water in that state. To each of these observations care has been taken to affix the constitution of air, and the disposition of the wind, which have a great share in the accelerating, or retarding the tides, and the different heights observed therein.

By comparing the times of high-water in the new and full moons at *Brest*, we find that the high-water observed to have come earliest was on the 26th of *September* 1711, at $3^h 13' \frac{1}{2}$ in the morning; and that the latest was on the 25th of *December* at $4^h 30'$ in the evening; so that there
are

are inequalities in the time of the tides even in new and full moons, yet these inequalities may be in some measure reduced to a rule, by supposing the mean time of high-water at, *Brest* to be at $3^{\text{h}} 45'$, and making use of the rule prescribed at *Dunkirk*, and *Havre*, which is to add $2'$ to the mean time of high water, for every hour that the time of new or full moon anticipates the mean time of high water, and to subtract on the contrary 2 for each hour, that the times of new or full moon comes behind the mean time of high-water.

For an instance, on the 28th of *August* 1711, the day of full moon, it was found high-water at $4^{\text{h}} 6'$ in the evening, and the time of full moon, as noted that day in the ephemeris was at $5^{\text{h}} 8'$ in the morning, the difference between $5^{\text{h}} 8'$ in the morning, and $3^{\text{h}} 45'$ in the evening; the mean time of high-water at *Brest*, is $10^{\text{h}} 37'$; the double whereof 21 is the number of minutes to be added to $3^{\text{h}} 45'$, on account of the full moon's anticipating the mean time of high-water, the sum gives the true time of high-water on the 28th of *August* 1711 at $4^{\text{h}} 6'$ in the evening, the same as was actually observed. So on the 9th of *December* 1711, the day of new moon, high-water was observed at $3^{\text{h}} 29' \frac{1}{2}$ in the evening, in the ephemeris new moon is noted for that day at $11^{\text{h}} 15'$ in the evening, the difference between $3^{\text{h}} 45'$, and $11^{\text{h}} 15'$, is $7^{\text{h}} 30'$, the double whereof 15 is the number of minutes to be subtracted from $3^{\text{h}} 45'$, on account of the times of full moons coming behind the mean time of high-water, the remainder gives the true time of high-water, on the 29th of *December* 1711 at $3^{\text{h}} 30'$ in the evening, within half a minute of what was actually observed.

As to the tides in the quadratures, high-water is then found at *Brest*, nearly about the same time, tho'

tho' with inequalities somewhat greater than those observed in the new and full moons, which is a necessary consequence, supposing the motion of the tides to depend on that of the moon, since that planet is found by astronomers subject to greater inequalities in the quadratures than in conjunction or opposition.

Taking a medium between these inequalities, we shall find the mean time of high-water in the quadratures, at *Brest* at $8^h 57'$, and the true time of high-water will be determined at *Brest* for the days of quadrature, after the same manner as was done for the days of new and full moon, with this only difference, that in lieu of two minutes, we must add or subtract $2\frac{1}{2}$ from the mean time, for every hour the quadrature anticipates, or comes behind the mean time of high-water.

The mean time of high-water at *Brest*, in the new and full moons, being fixed at $3^h 45'$, and in the quadratures at $8^h 57'$, gives us the retardation of the tides from the new and full moons to the quadratures $5^h 12'$, precisely the same as was observed at *Dunkirk*, and within 2 minutes of what was determined at *Havre*; so that we may take it for a general rule, that the interval between the times of the tide from new and full moon to the quadratures, is less than from the quadratures to the new and full moons; and that the diurnal retardation of these tides goes in a regular kind of progression, tho' the terms of this progression do not fall upon the days of new and full moons, and quadratures, but one, two, or three days after; it being observable that the effect of the several phases of the moon upon the tides, is not communicated immediately; and that the highest tides usually happen two days after new and full

moons, as the lowest usually happen two days after the quadratures.

We have already observed that the highest tides do not always happen about the equinoxes, and all the lowest about the solstices; but that the different heights of the tide, seem to have a nearer relation to the different distances of the moon from the earth; this rule, which agreed with the observations made at *Dunkirk* and *Havre*, and which we venture to extend beyond those ports, is farther confirmed by the observations made at *Brest*; for 'tis observed that in the high tides happening after new and full moon, the sea rises much higher when the moon is near the earth, than when she is further distant therefrom; and that in two succeeding new moons, where the moon is at an equal distance from the earth, the tide usually rises to the same height.

For an instance, on the 10th of *November* 1711, the day of new moon, the moon's distance from the earth was 93600 of those parts, whereof the mean distance is 100000, which is one of the smallest distances that can happen; and accordingly the tide rose that day 19 feet 3 inches. On the 25th of *November* following, the day of full moon, the moon's distance from the earth was 106540 of the same parts, which is one of the greatest distances that can happen; and accordingly the height of the tide that day was only found 16 feet, 9 inches, which is less by 2 feet 4 inches, than when the moon was nearer the earth: and this pretty much in the same proportion as the moon's distance from the earth. On the contrary, the distance of the moon from the earth being pretty equal on the full moon of the 29th of *July*, 1711, and the new moon ensuing on the 14th of *August*, the highest tides which followed on the

31 of *July*, and 16th of *August*, were found about the same pitch.

But the height of the tides, which in these observations seems to depend on the distance of the moon from the earth, does not suit so well with the rule of the equinoxes; for on the 26th of *September*, the day of full moon immediately following the autumnal equinox, high-water rose in the evening to 17 feet, 5 inches; and on the day following, which was that of the highest tide, it rose to 17 feet 6 inches; on the 12th of *October* next, the day of new moon, the height of the tide in the evening was found 19 feet, 5 inches; and the next day which was the time of highest tide, it rose in the evening to 19 feet 6 inches; which was higher by 2 feet than on the 27 of *September*; tho' according to the rule of the equinoxes this tide should have been lower than the former, which was nearer the autumnal equinox; but if regard be had to the moon's distance from the earth in these two observations, it will appear that the tide should have been lower on the 27th of *September*, than on the 13th of *October*, since the moon's distance from the earth in the full moon of *September* was 103970 greater by much, than in the new moon of *October*, when it was 94680.

This relation of the tides with the distance of the moon from the earth, not only holds in the high tides succeeding new and full moons, but also in the lesser tides which follow the quadratures; for on the 6th of *August*, 1711, the day of the last quadrature of the moon, when her distance from the earth is 106300, which is one of the greatest that can happen, it was found on the 8th of *August* following the day of lowest tide, that the flood only rose 10 feet 10 inches 4 lines, which is one of the lowest that has been known.

On the 21st of *August* following, the day of the first quadrature, the moon's distance from the earth was 97700, which was much less than on the 8th of *August*, and accordingly on the 22^d of *August*, the day of lowest tide, it rose to 12 foot 5 inches 6 lines, which was higher by 1 foot 7 inches than on the 8th of *August*. So on the 17th of *November* 1711, the day of the first quadrature, the moon's distance from the earth being nearly the same as on the 3^d of *December*, in the same year the day of the last quadrature, the low tides immediately following those phases were found about the same height.

It appears therefore beyond doubt, that the different distances of the moon from the earth is one of the chief causes of the different heights observed in the tides, which agrees likewise with Mr. *Childrey's* observations, related in the *Philosophical Transactions* for *October* 1670, where he gives an account of several high tides, which caused great inundations in *England*, and which all happened when the moon was *in perigeo*.

After laying down rules for determining the time of high-water, and the days of highest and lowest tides, we proceed now to consider what befalls in low-water, that is, after the sea is withdrawn and sunk to her lowest state, which is also observed twice a day.

It should seem at first sight, that the ebbing and flowing of the sea being a successive motion, the time of low-water should be a medium between the times of high-water immediately preceding and following it; but by all observation the sea employs more time in falling than in rising; the reason may be, that the force which obliges the sea to rise still subsists for some time after it has arrived at its utmost height, and thus
keeping

keeping the water in some measure suspended, prevents their falling with so much velocity, as they would do if nothing hindered their descent.

It follows hence, that to enter a port, 'tis by no means safe to come before the tide, since at equal distances of time the sea is lower before, than after high-water.

But what is more remarkable in low-water is, that the higher the sea had rose, the lower it sinks again; and the less high the tide had been, the less low will it be after the ebb.—For an instance, on the 13th of Oct. 1711, the day of the highest tide at *Brest*, the water rose 19 feet, 6 inches, above the fixed point; but upon the sea's withdrawing, it was found 1 foot, 10 inches, below the same point; so that the sea had fallen that day 21 feet, 4 inches.—On the contrary, on the 6th of Sept. the day of the lowest tide at *Brest*, high-water was found at 10 feet, 3 inches; and low-water, on the day preceding, was 5 feet, 11 inches; so that the sea had only fallen that day 4 feet, 4 inches.

Hence it appears more easy to determine the time of high-water about new and full moons, than about the quadratures; since, in a space of time almost equal, the sea sometimes rises 5 times more in the new and full moons, than the quadratures.

From these observations it likewise appears, of how much importance it is to know the time of high-water in new and full moons, since on these occasions the sea-rises or falls with more rapidity than about the quadratures; so that to bring a vessel into a port where there is only depth of water sufficient at the time of new and full moon, might be dangerous, if the pilot were
not

not well informed of the precise time of high-water.

From these observations new rules might be laid down for determining the time of high and low-water, and the height thereof at *Brest*, for all times of the year; and these rules being added to those already prescribed for finding the time and height of high-water at *Dunkirk*, and *Havre*, will include almost every thing to be desired on this head, for the advantage of navigation.

Tho' our intention be not here to give a general theory of the ebbing and flowing of the sea, yet we shall here subjoin our sentiment as to the cause of the principal phenomena observed therein.

In order to this, we suppose, that the ebbing and flowing of the sea, may arise from the pressure of the sun and moon, upon the celestial matter which surrounds the earth; but more from the pressure of the moon which is nearer us, than that of the sun, which is farther off.

Now in the new and full moons, when the sun and moon are nearly in the same direction with regard to the earth, those two luminaries possessing a place in the matter which surrounds the earth, necessarily compress that matter, and hereby press upon the water in the sea, which being obliged to give way, and flow on either side from the place of pressure to the distance of 90° , where the sea must be at its greatest height; in other situations of the moon from the sun, the moon's action being directed differently from that of the sun, the pressure upon the earth must be less, and consequently the sea less high in its flux, as well as less low in its reflux; lastly, the effect of the sun being opposite to that of the moon in the quadratures, the pressure occasioned by the moon must

must be partly destroyed; and, consequently, the sea be higher in the time of low-water; but lower in the time of high-water, as is actually observed.

As to the different distances of the moon from the earth, they must have a sensible effect on the heights of the tides; for the pression of the moon upon the earth, must needs be greater when near the earth, than when further off. Since the motion communicated in a fluid near at hand, acts more forcibly than that communicated at a greater distance, that it may be observed in a fluid put into motion, whereof those parts nearest the place where the motion commences are more agitated than those further off.

IV. *Reflections upon observations of the barometer made by M. Vallerius director of several copper mines in Sweden, by M. de la Hire, jun. translated by Mr. Chambers**.

Shewing M. *Vallerius*, who is a good mathematician, when he was some years ago at *Paris*, the changes which the mercury in the barometer undergoes between the top and bottom of the observatory, I desired him to make the same experiments in the mines under his care, which he did accordingly last summer in the wells of *Flemengienus* and *Flemingsschatet*, and the mines called *Falbunenses* in the great copper mountain, and upon the mountain *Grufriis-barget* adjoining to those mines the heavens being very cloudy, and the wind pretty strong, so as to abate the heat.

He began his experiments with an observation of the barometer at the entrance of the mine,
where

* March 19 1712.

where he found the mercury at the 24th, 10th, and the fourth 100th of the *Swedish* foot, which, in *Paris* measure, are equivalent to 26 inches, 9 lines, $\frac{2}{3}$ of a line——Here it may be proper to observe, that the *Swedes* divide their feet into 12 parts, each 10th into 10 more, which they call lines, and each line into 10 parts.

Then descending with the barometer into one of these mines 45 *Swedish* fathom deep equivalent to 41 fathoms, 1 foot, 2 inches, 1 line, $\frac{1}{2}$, *Paris* measure, he found the mercury standing at the 24th tenth, 7 lines, answering to 27 *Paris* inches, 1 line, and $\frac{2}{3}$ of a line; consequently the mercury had arose 3 *Swedish* lines for 45 of their fathoms deep, equal in to 3 lines $\frac{4}{5}$ of a line for 41 fathoms, 1 foot 2 inches, 1 line $\frac{1}{2}$ *Paris* measure.

He continued descending 45 *Swedish* fathoms more, which is the lowest he could go, and observing the barometer here, found the mercury at the 25th tenth; so that it had arose 3 *Swedish* lines, as in the former 45 fathoms, viz. to 27 inches, 5 lines *Paris* measure. Hence for 90 *Swedish* fathoms we find 6 lines difference in the height of the mercury, which amount to 7 lines, $\frac{4}{5}$ for 82 fathoms, 2 feet, 4 inches, 3 lines, *Paris* measure.

But to be further assured of the accuracy of his observations, he made 2 in his return up again, whereby the whole depth was divided into 3 equal parts; whereas in going down, he had only made one in the middle; after ascending 30 *Swedish* fathoms, he found the mercury sunk 2 *Swedish* lines, which answers to 2 lines $\frac{3}{5}$, for 27 fathoms, 2 feet, 6 inches, 9 lines, *Paris* measure.——Ascending 30 *Swedish* fathoms further, he found the mercury sunk 2 *Swedish* lines.
——Ascending 30 *Swedish* fathoms further,

he found the mercury sunk 2 *Swedish* lines.—— And lastly, arriving at the entrance of the mines, which is 30 fathom further, he found the mercury sunk 2 *Swedish* lines lower, so that it now stood at the 24th tenth, and 4 lines, as at first.

Not contented with these observations, M. *Vallerius* made others on the mountain *Grufriis-berget*, adjoining to the mine just mentioned, and ascending the mountain 15 *Swedish* fathoms perpendicularly high, he found the mercury 1 *Swedish* line lower than at the foot of the mountain, or the entrance of the mine, which amounts to 1 line, $\frac{1}{5} \frac{2}{10} \frac{8}{100}$, for 13 fathoms, 4 feet, 3 inches, 4 lines $\frac{1}{2}$ *Paris* measure——Continuing to ascend 15 *Swedish* fathoms higher, he found the mercury 1 *Swedish* line lower than in the former observation——and arriving at length at the top of the mountain, which was 22 *Swedish* fathoms higher than in the former observation, and consequently 52 *Swedish* fathoms above the entrance of the mine, he found the mercury sunk 1 *Swedish* line $\frac{2}{10}$, so that it now stood at the 24th decad, and $\frac{2}{10}$ of a line, and thus for 52 *Swedish* fathoms had sunk 3 lines $\frac{2}{10}$, which in *Paris* measure makes 4 lines $\frac{1}{5} \frac{2}{10} \frac{6}{100}$, for 47 fathom 3 feet, 2 inches, 10 lines $\frac{8}{100}$.

Descending the mountain again, he observed the heights of the mercury in the same places as before, and found the same differences, whence he infers, that 9 lines, and $\frac{2}{10}$ of mercury, correspond to 142 fathoms of air, *Swedish* measure, which amounts to 12 lines $\frac{2}{10} \frac{4}{100}$, for 129 fathoms, 4 feet, 11 inches, 1 line, and $\frac{4}{5} \frac{2}{10} \frac{2}{100}$.

For the more exactness of his observations, M. *Vallerius* informs me that he made them with two barometers which perfectly agreed from beginning to ending.

By examining the observations above related, that from the bottom of the mine, to 27 fathoms, 2 feet, 6 inches 9 lines perpendicular height, above the top of it, there are 109 fathoms, 4 feet, 3 inches, for which the mercury sunk 10 lines, and $\frac{2}{5}\frac{6}{0}\frac{4}{0}$, so that there was always a line difference in the height of the mercury, to 10 fathoms, 1 foot, 6 inches, 4 lines, the mercury at the bottom of the mine standing at 27 inches, 5 lines, and at the top of the mountain 109 fathoms, at 26 inches, 6 lines, and $\frac{2}{5}\frac{3}{0}\frac{6}{0}$.

These I take to be the first experiments of the barometer, in places of this depth, which makes them of the more consequence, as they shew that the same differences in the height of the mercury, correspond to the same height of air, whether it be upon a mountain, or within the ground, even in a deep mine, where one might imagine that the great plenty of vapours, must have made the air considerably heavier than elsewhere.

Now upon comparing the observations of M. *Vallerius*, with those made in *France*, it appears that a line difference in the height of mercury in *Sweden*, corresponds to a less height of air, than the same is found to do by Mess. *Cassini*, *Picard*, and *de la Hire* in this country.

For M. *Cassini* at the foot of the mountain *Notre-Dame de la Garde*, near *Toulon*, found his barometer at 28 inches, which after ascending to the top, 178 fathoms 2 feet, was sunk to 26 inches 8 lines, so that 178 fathom 2 feet, gave a diminution of 16 lines, which is 10 fathoms 5 feet per line, supposing the air equally dense in this whole height——M. *Picard* again on *Mount St. Michael* found his barometer sink from the *Greve*, to the dial on the middle of the church, 4 lines $\frac{1}{2}$, the depth between which places is 64 fathoms, whence

whence he infers, that a line difference in the height of mercury answers to 14 fathoms, 1 foot, 4 inches.—Lastly, my father on the mount *Clairret*, by *Toulon*, found his barometer at 26 inches, 4 lines, $\frac{1}{2}$; but descending to the banks of the sea he found it at 28 inches, 2 lines, which is 21 lines $\frac{1}{2}$ for 257 fathoms depth, or 12 fathoms per line; and from the like experiments at *Meudon*, he found 6 lines, $\frac{3}{4}$, sinking of mercury, for 85 fathoms, 2 feet, height of air, which gives 12 fathoms, and 4 feet, nearly for a line; by other experiments made at the observatory, he found a line of mercury answer to 12 fathoms, 2 feet and $\frac{2}{3}$.

M. *Cassini*, jun. in the memoirs for the year 1705*, gives a table of the heights of air corresponding to the heights of mercury in the barometer, founded on a rule established by M. *Maraldi*, wherein it appears, that at 27 inches, 5 lines, the height of mercury found by M. *Vallerius* at the bottom of his mine, 11 fathoms, 1 foot, correspond to a line difference of height of mercury; and that at 26 inches, 6 lines, which is nearly the height M. *Vallerius* was at on the mountain *Grufriis-berget*, 13 fathoms of air answer to a line of mercury.

The above-mentioned heights corresponding to a line of mercury are all greater than that found by M. *Vallerius*, tho' they should be smaller, supposing as we may probably do, that the air is less and less dense the further it is off the earth, since they are all founded on experiments which began at a point where the barometer stood at 28 inches; whereas that of M. *Vallerius*, when lowest, was only at 27 inches, 5 lines.—But as this proof

may not seem convincing, I shall subjoin another founded on the same principle, *viz.* that the air is an heavy elastic body.

If the atmosphere * CX, which I suppose of a certain extent from the centre of the earth C, be divided from the top so as to give all the points X, U, T, S, &c. where the mercury changes a line in its height, these points will mark spaces which go continually diminishing in a certain proportion.

If now a barometer be placed in any part of the atmosphere, thus divided as in R, and the mercury be found for instance at 26 inches; if we would have it to sink a line, we must raise it to S; but if while the barometer stands in R, the atmosphere growing higher, makes the mercury rise 27 inches. To make the mercury now fall a line, we must not raise it the height RS, but the height EF; for that the different changes of the atmosphere, produce the same effects on a barometer which keeps it place, as would be produced by removing it into a higher, or lower place, while the air undergoes no alteration.

But by the experiments of M. *Vallerius* we find, that at a certain height of the barometer, a smaller height of air answers to a line of mercury in *Sweden* than in *France*, than is found at a greater height of the barometer in *France*, which shews, that the atmosphere is much higher in the northern countries than 'tis here; and hence it seems to follow, that the perpendicular height corresponding to a line of mercury at a greater height of the barometer in *France*.

It had been conjectured from the observation of M. *Richer*, at *Cayenne*, that the atmosphere

* Plate V. Fig. 12.

becomes higher as it is further from the line, the greatest height of mercury which he found there during a whole year, being only 27 inches, 1 line; whereas, at the observatory, no year passes wherein it does not rise above 28 inches.

But the atmosphere being higher in the northern than the southern countries, the refraction must be much greater, which we find accordingly from the observations of some astronomers who attended king *Charles II.* of *Sweden*, in an expedition towards the north pole.

It remains to account for the differences between the observations made in these countries, for determining the perpendicular height of air corresponding to a line of mercury.——After sifting the several changes which may befall the air, I apprehend this difference owing to two principal causes; the first, to a greater or less height of the atmosphere; and the second, to trains of vapours diffused thro' the air near the earth, which on some occasions may make the spaces of the air: they are in heavier without any considerable alteration in the height of the whole atmosphere.

V. *A continuation of the observations on the bezoars, by M. Geoffroy, junior*.*

In my first observations I have remarked, that there is generally in the centre of each bezoar some foreign body, about which the bezoardic *strata* are formed and disposed. It has also appeared to me, that it might be a sign, that the stones are not counterfeited, as those who should endeavour to counterfeit them, would not think of using a

* July 6, 1712.

precaution, which would be of no service to them ; and besides, they would never take the pains to seek for so great a variety of substances, as those which serve for a base to the different bezoar stones.

The very fossil bezoars are formed after the same manner. *Bocccone* has observed kernels in them of different sorts, pebbles, gravel, wood, metal, coals, &c. I have examined that sort, called *Priapolites*, which grows in *Languedoc* ; and one of them was given me by M. *Bon* ; the centre of which is occupied by a piece of rock crystal.

Among the different kernels found in the animal bezoar stones, I have observed one which appeared to me to resemble the stones of *Cassia* or *Tamarind*, but smaller. I have, however, found since, that it might be the fruit of a pod, which I had not seen before, resembling that of the pod of the tree, called, *Acacia vera Ægyptiana*. This tree grows in *Egypt*, *Arabia*, and other places. The pod, which is brought to us from *Senegal*, is 3, or 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and 9 or 10 lines broad ; it is composed of an outer and an inner membrane. The outer membrane is very tender, of a brown colour, and fastened to the inner one, which is cartilaginous, and very thin. The matter, which unites them, is gummy, of a transparent yellowish colour ; it melts in the mouth, and has a very rough taste. In the longest pods I have found 8 grains separated from one another by a sort of contraction, which reunites the sides of the membrane. Each cavity of these pods contains a flat grain, resembling a lupine, sometimes exactly circular, and sometimes a little compressed by the contraction of the pod, which

is closer in the middle than at the two ends; so that the fruits of the middle of the pod are a little compressed, and those of the end are exactly round.

What made me judge that these fruits were those which I had observed in the bezoar, which is round, and a little flattened, is that I have found them to have the same marks, and among many others, a circular whitish line, drawn upon each face of the fruit, such as appears upon that which is found inclosed in the bezoar. I put some of these fruits in water, they swelled almost in the same manner as they would have done when found in the stomach of the animal, where they began to be covered with the bezoartic matter. The tincture which I drew from these fruits was red and very sour. I threw a little vitriol into it, and it grew black: these seeds, and their pods are used in the country where they grow, to tan leather. From their decoction in water is drawn a juice, which is thickened, and brought to us under the name of *Succus Acaciæ*. It is also pretended, that from this *Acacia* tree, that the gum is obtained, which we call gum arabic, and gum senegal. Is there any probability that the makers of the bezoar should go to look among other things for the fruit of the *Acacia*, to make one of the bases of their composition? And is it not more likely that these fruits and some others, which serve for nourishment to the animals, cause by their astringency a thickening of liquors in the stomachs of those animals, which eat the most of it; this thickening of liquor may cause the formation of the bezoar stones.

This is the manner in which those stones grow in the stomach of the animal that bears them, and
grow

grow to the state in which we find them. There may be several found in the ventricle of a single animal. *Tavernier* says expressly, that six of these goats which he had for a present, had in all 17 bezoars, that they might be felt on the outside and counted, which increased the price of these animals, in proportion to the number of bezoars that were felt in them. This agrees perfectly with what *Clusius* relates of the animals which afford the occidental bezoar. He says, that a friend of his in *Peru*, who had first made the discovery of the occidental bezoar, being desirous to know how these stones were formed in the body of these animals, dissected one of them, and found in the stomach a sort of pouch, where these stones were ranged in order, as the buttons upon a coat.

These two passages are quite opposite to what *Pomet* tells us, that only one bezoar is found in the belly of each animal. He also assures us, that he would not have ventured to contradict the authors, who have treated of it; had he not had a piece in his hands to justify his opinion.

It will be proper to examine it here, as nobody, that I know of, has publickly exposed *Pomet's* error concerning the pretended coat of the animal bezoar, which he said was one of the greatest curiosities that had been seen for a long time in *France* in the opinion of all judicious persons.

This coat is, says he, of the bigness of a goose egg, having on the outside a short rough hair, of a tawny colour, which being cut in two, discovers a thin brown shell, which covers another white shell, as hard as a bone, in which the stone is contained, that is called the bezoar.*

* *Pomet in his traité des drogues, livre des anim. pag. 10.*

Now this so singular a covering of the *bezoar*, of which he pretended to have made the discovery, is not any part of the animal which bears the *bezoar*, but an exotic fruit, in which either *Pomet*, or some quack, whom he had suffered to impose upon him, had very artfully inclosed a *bezoar* stone. This fraud was not discovered 'till about a year ago. As I was to examine this singular drug of M. *Pomet*'s in company with M. *Vaillant* and M. *de Jussieu*, demonstrators of the plants in the royal garden, we perceived that this pretended covering could not be a part of any animal, and that it must be some fruit but little known: This was afterwards verified by M. *Vaillant*, who found he had some of these fruits, and could make *bezoes* of them, with their coverings, just like the *bezoes* so much esteemed by *Pomet*; and I have made some of them myself. This fruit grows upon a sort of palm-tree described by *John Bauhinus*, and called by him *Palma cuciofera*: this fruit is also described by *Theophrastus*. The tree grows in *Egypt*, *Nubia* and *Ethiopia*. *Cordus* calls it *Nux Indica minor*, and has given a description of the fruit, such as I have just now related from *Pomet*, in speaking of the coat of the *bezoar*. This description wants only one particularity omitted by *Pomet*, which is the skin that again covers the whole fruit, and is of a tawny yellow colour; the fruit has a footstalk divided into 6 parts, 3 great ones, and 3 small ones. This would have been sufficient to have undeceived him, or those who have been deceived after him, and it is of service toward the perfection of natural history, that frauds of this kind should be carefully revealed.

It is not without reason that I put in my last memoir in the rank of *bezoes* all the substances

that are formed in *strata* in the bodies of animals. The pearls which I reckoned in this number, deserve it so much the better, as I have found some in certain shells, so like the common *bezoar*, that they are hard to be distinguished at first sight: These pearls are engendered in a sort of shell-fish, called *Pinna Marina*, *Pinna sive Astura Mathioli*; we see a great quantity of them on the coasts of *Provence*, where they fish in *April* and *May*; this sort of fish is called *nacre* in that country.

The pearls which are found in these shells, are all of the same water; some are, as I have said, perfectly like *bezoar* stones; others of a coral, and amber colour, and others of a pearl colour, but more leaden; the most usual shape of them is that of a pear. All these varieties of shape and colour do not hinder them from being of the same nature, since they grow in the body of the same fish; I have four of a different water and shape, which were taken out of the same shell. That these, and all other pearls are formed in the body of shell-fishes, as the common *bezoar* is in the goats that furnish it, is not difficult to prove, since upon breaking them they are found to have stripes like certain *bezours* already mentioned, and formed about a *nucleus* or kernel, which seems itself to be a little pearl.

Some of them are so uneven, that they do not preserve the figure of pearls, but the matter of them is always disposed in *strata*, like the bezours. Now it is never questioned but that the oriental pearls are of the same nature with those which grow in other shell-fishes, as in the common oysters, and in the different sorts of muscles. All the difference between them comes only from their different water, but is every where the same matter,

matter, and the same structure, as may plainly be seen in the different pearls found in the *pinna marina*. Pearls therefore must be looked upon as true *bezoars*, as to their nature, tho' they are not perfectly such as to their virtue.

The pearls are not the only thing that is observable in the *pinna marina*. This shell-fish, which is a sort of great muscle, consists of 2 large pieces, rounded at top, and very much pointed at bottom, very unequal on the outside, brown and smooth on the inside, towards the point inclining to the colour of mother of pearl. They are of different sizes from 1 foot to $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length, being in the broadest part about $\frac{1}{3}$ of their length, these shells are so thin, that they are transparent; what is most remarkable in them, is a sort of tuft, about 6 inches long, more or less according to the size of the shell. This tuft is situated toward the point of the side opposite to the hinge; it is composed of several filaments of a very fine brown silk, these little threads being viewed thro' a microscope appear hollow, when burnt they afford an urinous smell like silk. The ancients have called this substance *byssus*, either on account of its resemblance to the *byssus*, of which they wove precious stuffs, or perhaps it might be the very *byssus* itself, which they used for that purpose; for the most able critics have not sufficiently cleared up what we are to understand by the *byssus* of the ancients; they have only distinguished two sorts of it, that of *Greece*, which was found only in the province of *Elis*, and that of *Judea*, which was the finest. The scripture *informs us, that this was used in the sacerdotal ornaments, and the wicked rich man was cloathed with it. But as the ancients under the name of *byssus*, have confounded cottons, and

* In our translation of the bible *byssus* is rendered *fine linnen*.

all other stuffs that were more precious than wool-
len, it is not easy to say exactly what their *byssus*
was, and whether it was obtained only from the
shells just mentioned ; this is certain, that *Aristotle*,
who calls the silk of these shells *byssus*, says it
may be wovlen, and therefore it can hardly be
questioned but that it was used for the cloaths of
great persons, in the ages when silk was but little
known, and rarely seen ; in short this *byssus*, tho'
coarsely spun, appears much finer than wool, and
approaches pretty near to silk : they now make
stockings of it, and other works, which would be
more valuable, if silk was less common : to spin
this sort of *byssus*, they leave it in a cellar, to grow
moist and soft ; and then they comb it, to separate
the flocks and impurities that stick to it, after
which they spin it, as they do silk.

The fishes, which afford the *byssus*, make use
of it to fasten their shells to the neighbouring
bodies, for as they are planted directly upon the
point of their shells, they have need of these fila-
ments, which they extend all around, like the cor-
dage of a mast, to keep themselves in that si-
tuation.

It is probable that the *pinna marina* forms
these sorts of threads, with the same mechanism
that *M. de Reaumur* has observed in the sea-
muscle ; but those of the *pinna* are more fine and
filky ; and according to *Rondeletius*, they are as
different from the threads of the muscles, as silk
is from hemp, which may be seen by comparing
them together.

There are some little crabs that get into the
shells of the *pinna*, of which the antients have re-
lated such singular facts, that it may not be amiss
to examine them here.

They

They thought this little animal grew with the fish of the *pinna*, for its preservation, and therefore called it the *guardian of the pinna*, imagining that the fish perished as soon as it come to lose its guardian. And this is what they thought made the little crab so useful to its host.

As the *pinna* is without eyes, and besides is not endued with a very exquisite sensation, whilst its shells are open, and the little fishes enter, the crab gives it notice by a slight motion, that by contracting its shells at once, the fishes may be taken, and then the *pinna* and the crab divide the booty between them. Those who did not believe that the crab received its birth in the shells of the *pinna*, raise the wisdom of this little animal still higher, which in order to lodge itself in the shells of fishes, takes its opportunity when they are open, and has the cunning to put in a little stone to hinder them from shutting, and so eats up the fish. But all these circumstances are like a great many others related by the ancient naturalists, without much foundation; and this is what has contributed to decry their works, tho' they otherwise inform us of several things that are true and curious. What they tells us here of the little crabs that lodge between the shells of the *pinna*, is easily disproved; for in the first place, these little animals are found indifferently in all bivalve shells, as oysters and muscles, as well as in those of the *pinna*, where we also sometimes find some little shell-fishes, which get in or fasten themselves upon them. I have a little *concha venerea*, which was found shut up and alive in the shell of a *pinna*. Besides the fish of these shells does not live upon flesh, any more than the muscles and oysters, but only upon water and mud. Thus the cunning of the little crab is of no use to it.

Lastly,

Lastly, the little crabs do not eat the fishes of the shells where they lodge, for we find these fishes found and whole with the little crabs that accompany them.

It is only chance therefore that throws these little animals into the shells whilst they are open, or else they retire thither for shelter, as they are very often found in the holes of sponges and stones, and in the exterior cavities of the shells.

As I have referred to the second class of bezoars the stones of the same nature which are taken from animals, I shall add those which I lately observed in the bags of the beaver, which are called *castor*. Among several that I opened, I found one which seemed bigger than the rest, and was filled with stones of different sizes. According to the common prejudice, I should have thought that these bags had been falsified and filled with stones to increase their weight; but upon examining them, I perceived that all these stones adhered, and were pretty regular in their shape. I presented some of these stones to the flame of a candle, and they burned like those taken from the gall-bladder, and had a smell of castor. These stones pretty much resemble the kernels of medlars, as those commonly do which are found in the gall-bladder. They are tender, and disposed in *strata*, which are separated by membranes dispersed through the substance of the bag, and forming the partitions of the cells. The biggest that I have found are 6 lines long, and 4 broad, and 3 in thickness. The others, which are in greater number, diminish in bigness, and the smallest are but about the size of pins heads. It is not probable that these stones have been added in the castor, considering the manner in which I have already observed them to be constructed.

The

The juice therefore contained in these bags must have thickened and curdled, about the membranes, or their glands; and so have served for a base to the formation of these stones. It is observed, that stones are formed in all the cavities of animal bodies, and even in the glands; and thus the name of bezoar becomes so extensive. I think therefore we may range these stones in the number of bezoars, as well as the different sorts of pearls, since they resemble the bezoar in their structure and vertue. The castor being used in medicine to fortify the brain, resist poison, assuage the vapours, and drive them out by perspiration, the stones which are found to contain the same principles, must have the same effects, and consequently the same virtues as the bezoardic substances. As I treat of the castor only with regard to the stones, which I have observed, I shall not stop here to describe the animal, nor the bags which contain the substance called castor, seeing the anatomy of it has been already made by the academy.

I shall only propose my opinion on the choice of this substance. I agree with those who are acquainted with it, that some of it may be falsified, but I believe that the difference in its smell and consistence comes rather from the climate, the food, and the age of the beaver, than from any counterfeiting. The most common, and least esteemed castor is that from *Canada*. It is looked upon as counterfeited, because it has either no smell at all, or a disagreeable one. I have opened several that were soft, and of very little smell, and yet without any appearance of sophistication, for the cells were neither swoln nor torn. On the contrary they were divided by membranes

membranes adhering to the covering, as we observe in those which are not suspected to be spurious. The castor of *Dantzick* is esteemed the best, and yet that of the *Levant* surpasses it.

There are some beavers also found in *France*, in some parts of the *Rhone*; they dry their bags, and this sort is very good. I have some in my collection, dried by an apothecary of *Villeneuve-lès-Avignon*, which are very good and large without being adulterated. I have found that this castor was not at all inferior to that of *Dantzick*. That of the *Rhone* is commonly sold for that of *Dantzick*, there being no other difference between them, but in that of *Dantzick* having the strongest smell. I am persuaded, that our castor of the *Rhone*, has the same quality with that of the *Levant* and of *Dantzick*; the bags are dried in the chimney where the liquor may ferment as it dries, which causes the castor to acquire continually a stronger and more proper smell.

VI. *A machine to disengage the horses absolutely, and at once from a coach, when they are headstrong and run away; by M. de la Hire, the son*.*

The accidents, which happen when horses run away, are so great, that I thought I should do a good piece of service to the publick, in finding out some easy way of hindering these accidents.

Among all the machines I have thought of for this purpose, I have found none more simple than that I am going to describe; after having explained the figure which represents the whole fore-part of a coach, called the *fore-carriage*, in order to shew

* Nov. 16, 1712

what is called the *splinter-bar*, with all the parts that depend upon it, the place where it is fastened, and its use.

**Fig 13.* AB is the pole, of which the farthest extremity from the coach, which is furnished with a hook QR, is represented underneath.

CD, CD the two futchells.

EF the splinter-bar fastened upon the two futchells, with 2 iron screws.

NN are the cramps of the splinter-bar, which go into it, and are fastened at the mouldings, they hinder the 2 leather rings GH, GH, which pass within as in the 2 cramps PP of the bars, from getting out at the end of the splinter-bar.

LK, LK are the two bars suspended, as we see, at the two ends of the splinter-bar, by means of the two leather rings, and in the middle of the bars are the cramps PP, which hinder them from slipping in the leather rings.

LM are the traces with which the horses draw the coach; they are fitted at each end of the bars in such a manner, as to embrace them the more strongly, in proportion as the horses draw with more effort.

S, the foot-board.

Fig. 14. represents the end of a splinter-bar more large, with the bar which is fastened to it by the leather ring, to shew all the small parts of it better.

I believe this explanation of the fore-carriage will be sufficient to understand, what I shall say in the sequel of this memoir.

The machine in question is applied at each extremity of the splinter-bar, which is furnished with 2 mouldings, two or three inches distant from each other, and raised about $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch above the

* Plate V.

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I i

body

body of the splinter-bar, which is cylindrical, between these two mouldings.

It is between these two mouldings that the leather ring of the bar is placed ; it is made of several leather thongs sewed together, the two ends of which are joined by a buckle ; in this manner the leather ring is drawn into length, and at one of its extremities embraces the end of the splinter-bar, and the other at the middle of the bar.

Fig. 15. One of the ends of the splinter-bar is represented by the letters A A ; of the two mouldings, which are there, that which is most at the extremity of the splinter-bar has been shaped to 8 angles, that the end of the splinter-bar may be the less diminished, because of the subjection which I am going to mention ; there are 4 of them large and 4 small, to give a greater seat to the sides of the ferril, which shall be fitted to it ; the figure that has been given to this moulding must be inscribed in the end of the splinter-bar, which bears the leather rings of the bar, that it may enter into the iron ring O.

This moulding being thus made octangular, has two of its great sides placed vertically, one towards the coach, and the other towards the horses ; the two others are placed horizontally, one above and the other below ; it is furnished with a sort of iron ferril B, which is also octangular.

From the face of this ferril, which is toward the coach, there comes out perpendicularly an iron pin D, about an inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ long. The extremity of this pin D is rounded like a pivot, that it may enter into a round hole at the extremity L, of the piece of iron LK, which I call the traverse, and be rivetted in such a manner into it, that this traverse, which is perpendicular to the pin D, may move circularly in it.

The.

The traverse LK about 4 inches long, and 10 lines broad in the place where it is most so, has toward the extremity K a hole M, which pierces thro', to let the bit of iron pass when it is pressed upon it.

The piece of iron F, which is an inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ high, is raised perpendicularly upon a pin E, which being parallel to that which is mark'd D, rises from the middle of one of the vertical faces of the sort of ferril C, namely from that which is toward the coach; the moulding to which this ferril belongs, has been made quadrangular; so that two of its faces are vertical, and two horizontal, and the ferril C is circumscribed to the part of the splinter-bar, between the 2 mouldings.

Across the two upper horizontal faces B and C of the two ferrils, as well as of the opposite faces, and across the splinter-bar, pass two skrews, which have their heads marked 3 and 4, and enter into the lower horizontal faces, which are opposite to B and C, to fix the two ferrils B and C to the splinter-bar AA.

The thong PQRSTVXY is the leather ring of the bar, it embraces at one of its ends that part of the splinter-bar, which is between the two ferrils B and C, because the extremity PQ is sewed to the under part; it is slit in the middle of the space between the two ferrils, to receive in its thickness the iron ring O; this ring embraces the splinter-bar in this place, and has a pin or tongue 8, which is perpendicular to it, and enters into the hole Z, marked toward the extremity XY of the leather ring of the bar.

When the tongue 8 is entered into the hole Z of the leather ring, if you pass the bar into the leather ring at the place TV, you will make the ring O turn, and the tongue 8 will come before;

it is to hinder it from coming before, that we shall lower the traverse LK upon the pin E, and make the double key H enter into the hole G, which goes thro' the piece F; but as the dirt might fall between the plates of the key H, and hinder it from being drawn back, there is fastened upon the traverse LK the box N, the entrance of which will be shut by the head of the key when it is put in, so that nothing can get into the box.

We see by the construction of the machine, that the horses which draw the bars, make a continual effort to raise with the tongue 8 the traverse LK, which cannot get loose from the piece F, because of the key H which passes through it.

The other bar is fastened in like manner, at the other end of the splinter-bar.

There remains nothing now but to shew how we may draw all at once, in the same instant, the key H, and that which is at the other end of the splinter-bar.

To do this we take a leather strap or thong slit in one part of its length, one of the ends of which passes over one pulley, and the other over another; these two pulleys are placed horizontally, and are in a double block, the gudgeon of which enters perpendicularly into the middle of the length of the splinter-bar, and into the face which is toward the coach.

The two ends I of this strap, after having passed over the pulleys, embrace the rings 6, which are behind the heads of the keys, and there these two ends, or these two parts of the slit end of the strap are sewed together; the other end of the strap, which has not been slit, passes under the foot-board and thro' the axle-tree of the little wheels, and is fastened to a silk cord, which enters the coach at a
hole

hole made in the middle of the fore-part, like that thro' which the string passes, to give the coachman notice when to stop.

It is easy to see, that if the person in the coach pulls the string, whilst the coach is going on, he will disengage the pins H from the holes G, that at the same time the tongues P will raise the traverses LK; that the end of the leather ring XY will come off from the tongue 8, and consequently that the bars will be no longer fastened to the splinter-bar; and as the bars are no longer fastened, the coach can no longer be drawn by the horses, because they are only fastened by this part; having substituted a spring instead of the little strap, to hold the great leather rings engaged in the iron hook, placed at the end of the pole; these leather rings lower this spring, when the horses continue to go on, and the bars are no longer fastened to the splinter-bar, which I shall explain more at length, when I speak of the other advantages of this spring.

The convenience of this machine is, that it may very easily be taken off from one coach and put upon another; for you need only undo the two screws 3 and 4, and to unscrew and screw again the two straps which hold to the two keys, because I suppose that care will be taken, before the two mouldings at the two ends of the splinter-bar are made angular, as I have observed, to fasten a double pulley to the middle of the splinter-bar, and to make a hole thro' the axle-tree of the little wheels of all the coaches, to which we would have the machine applied, and they will serve as usual, when the machine is not on, because we may pass into the holes of the splinter-bar, where the two screws 3 and 4 enter, the pins of a cramp, which shall be furrowed at the end, to screw nuts upon them

them to hold the cramp fast to the splinter-bar; and by this means hinder the leather rings of the bar, from slipping off the end of the splinter-bar, as is done to all coaches.

It is not enough to shew the way to prevent accidents, when two horses run away, but we must also prevent them, when there are 4, with a postillion or without one, and when there are 6, and when the postillion has been thrown under the horse that he rode upon, or when he cannot govern the horses.

When there are four horses to a coach, the two before are fastened either with traces, to the wheel horses, or to two bars fastened to a splinter-bar by two leather rings, like those next the coach; this splinter-bar, to which the two fore-horses are fastened, is encompassed in the middle part by a leather ring, in which their passes another, where the end of the pole enters, which has a hole to receive an iron pin, which is fastened to the end of the hook, with a little slip of leather, and against this pin the leather ring rests into which the pole enters; in this manner the fore-horses draw the coach by the end of the pole, but when instead of four horses they put 6, they only fasten the two first, to the two second with traces; and so the four first are fastened to the coach only by the end of the pole.

In order therefore to hinder the accidents which might happen, if four or six horses were to run away, we must find a way to detach all at once the leather ring, which is fastened to the end of the pole, which the machine I am going to describe will do, after having said that the wheel horses have each of them fastened to the breast leather of their harness a great long leather ring, in
which

which another leather ring is received, in which the end of the pole enters quite to the bottom of the hook.

Fig. 16. the end of the pole is represented by AB, and CDE represents the hook which is applied to it, and differs from the common ones only in that the end E is flatted, having a slit KF in its thickness, and pierced quite thro' with a square hole G.

In this slit KF between the extremity FK of a piece of iron FKL, which turns upon a hinge in the piece of iron MNO, this piece enters perpendicularly into the pole almost to the middle, because the plate of the hook, and the pole are perforated with a hole QR rounded at the two ends, of which the breadth is equal to the diameter of the pin MNO at the bottom, and the length to the quantity with which the pin MNO enters the pole; it is against this pin that the ring rests, which holds the splinter-bar to which the fore-horses are fastened.

Therefore to detach the fore-horses from the end of the pole, we need only fasten the piece of iron LKF to the end of the hook E, so that it may easily undo: this may be done by means of a spring ST, of which the end S is held fast to the plate of the hook by the square rivet V, and the other end T, which is of the breadth of the end of the hook E is perforated by a long slit, in which there passes a ring H, which holds to the extremity of a square iron pin, which passes thro' the 2 thicknesses of the end of the hook, and of the part FK of the piece FKL, and fills the square hole G.

The iron pin HG is instead of the slip of leather which holds to the end of the hook the iron pin which passes into the end of the pole. Another

other ring I is engaged in the ring H, or a little slip is tied in a knot to it, that when the spring ST is lowered, it may make the pin HG come out of its hole.

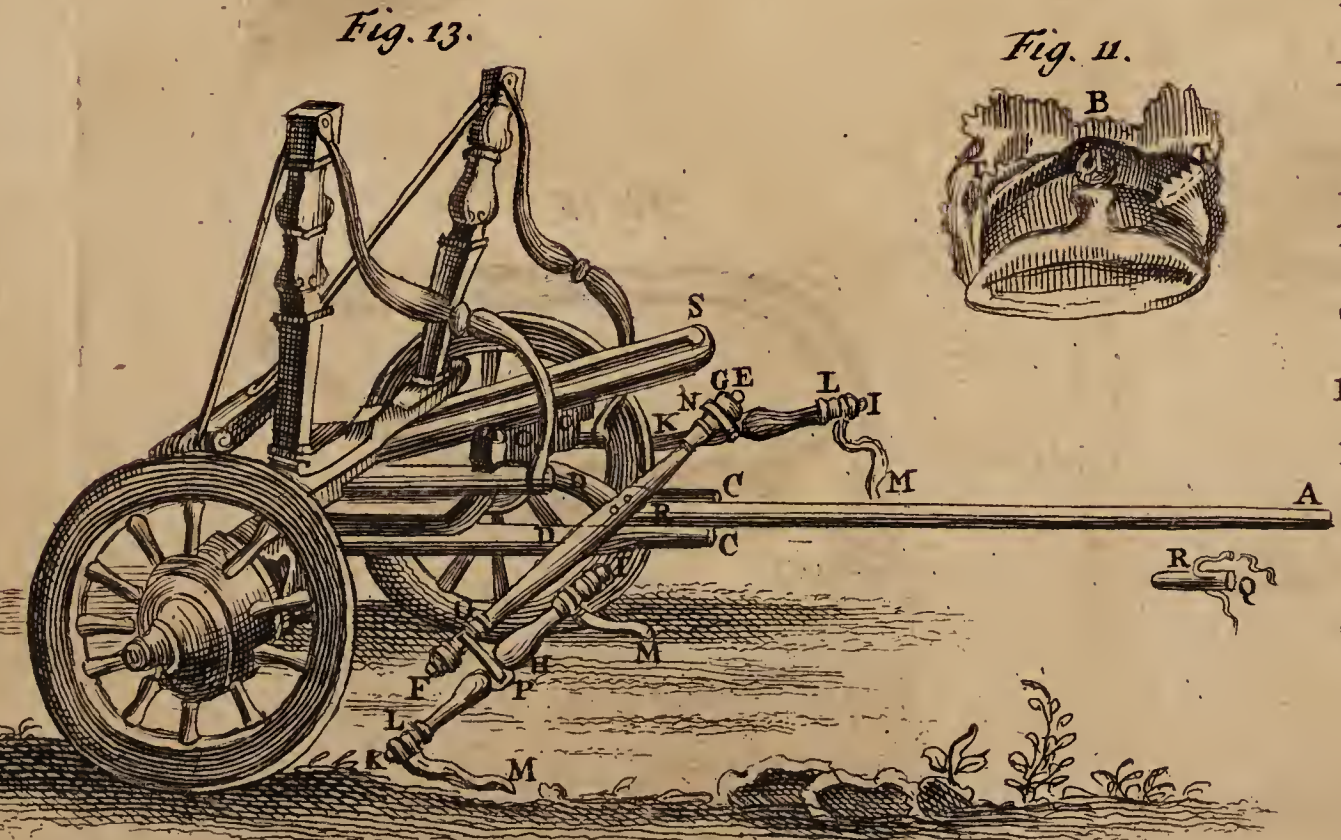
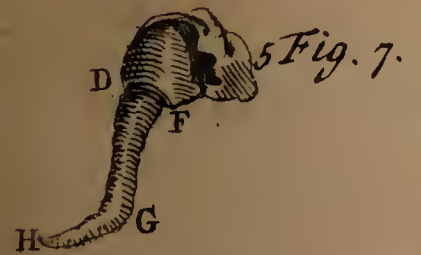
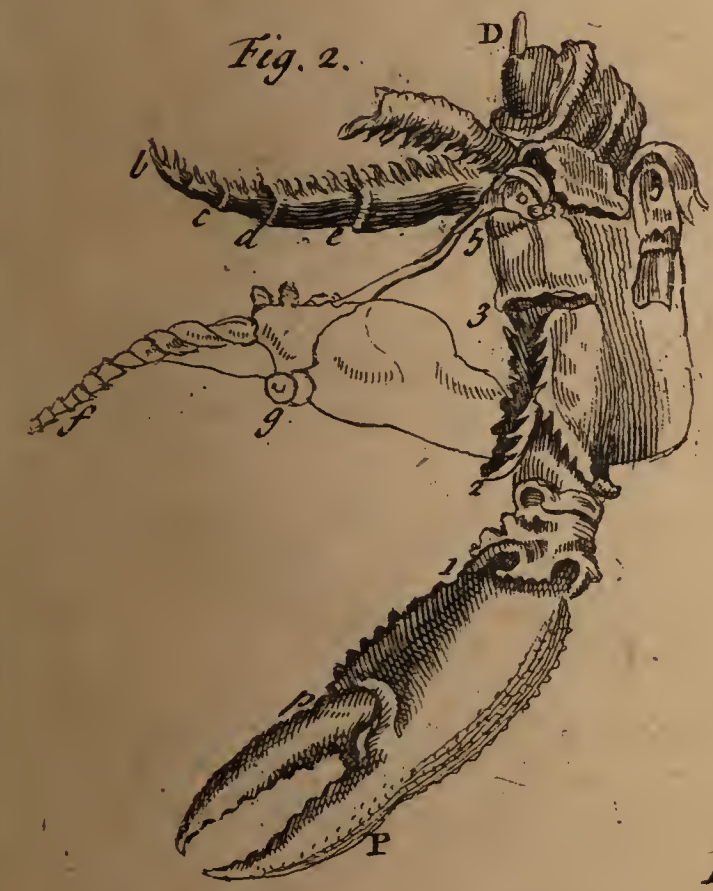
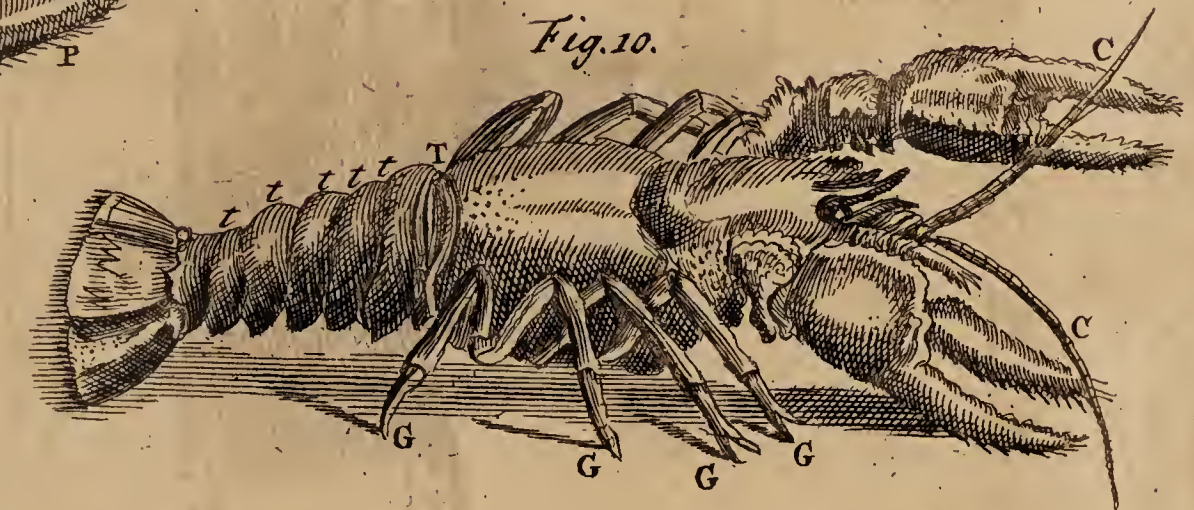
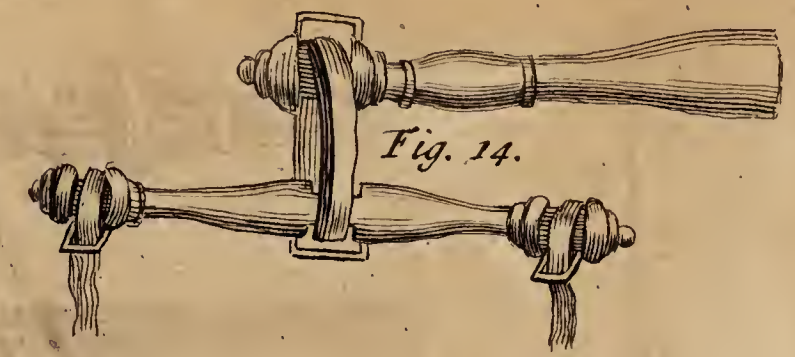
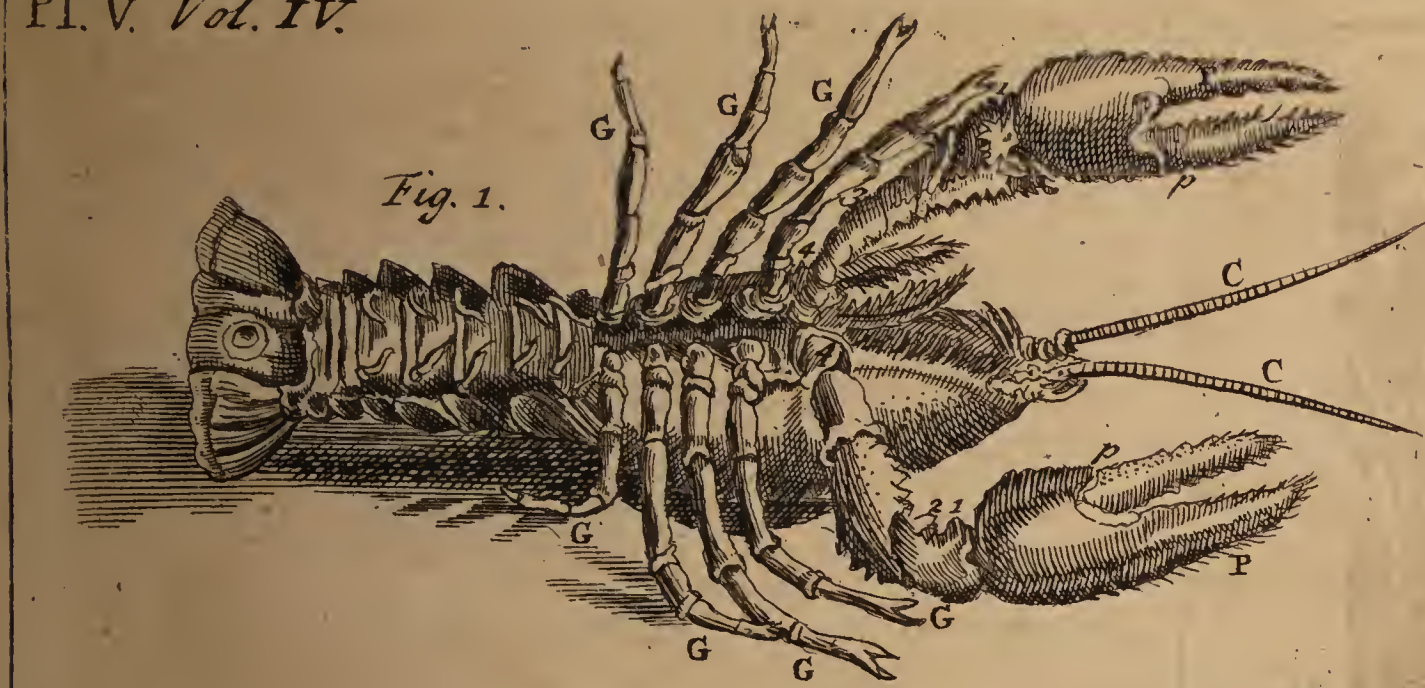
I have said there were two leather rings in which the end of the pole went quite to the bottom of the hook, that is, they occupy the place SP; but as the end of the pole cannot be made to go into these rings without lowering the spring; so they cannot get out without lowering it, and also disengaging at the same time the pin HG, which no longer retaining the piece FKLO in the end of the hook, it will be carried away by the leather ring which rests against it, and the fore-horses will go away with the splinter-bar.

We see by this construction, that if by the first machine we detach the 2 horses from the pole, they cannot go forward without lowering the spring ST, and at the same time detaching the splinter-bar from the end of the pole, and consequently the horses which are fastened to it.

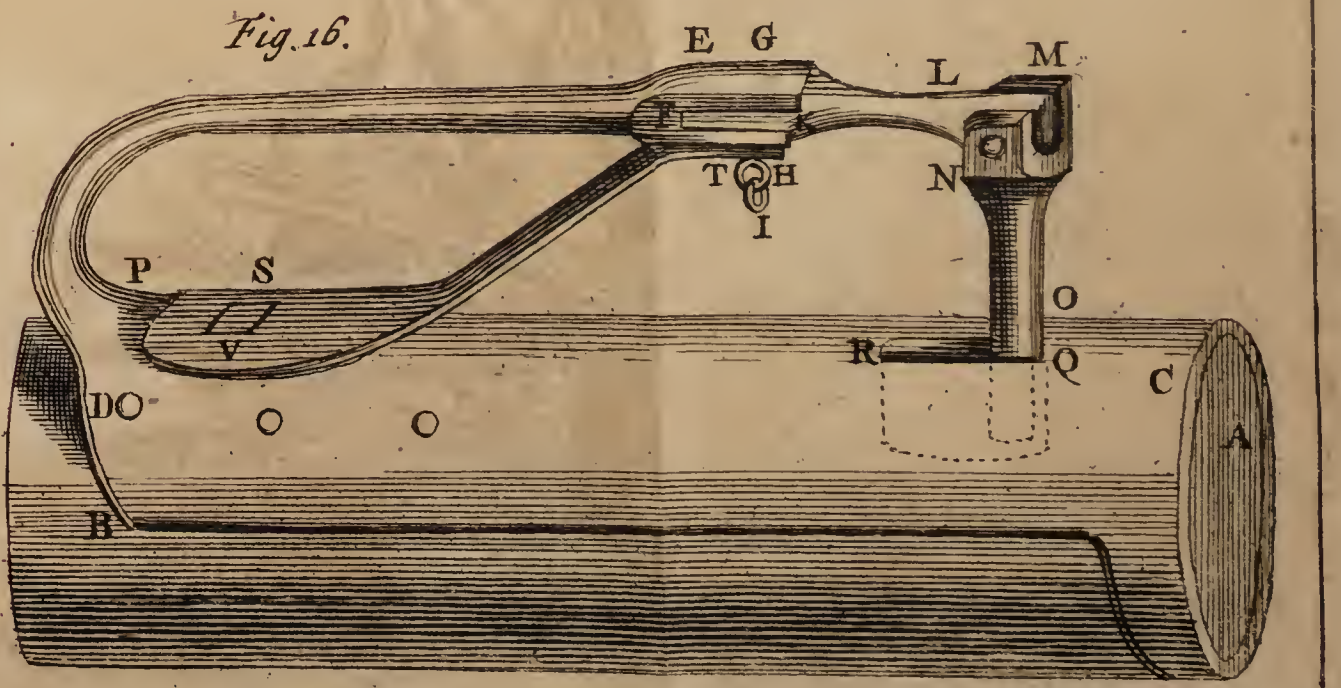
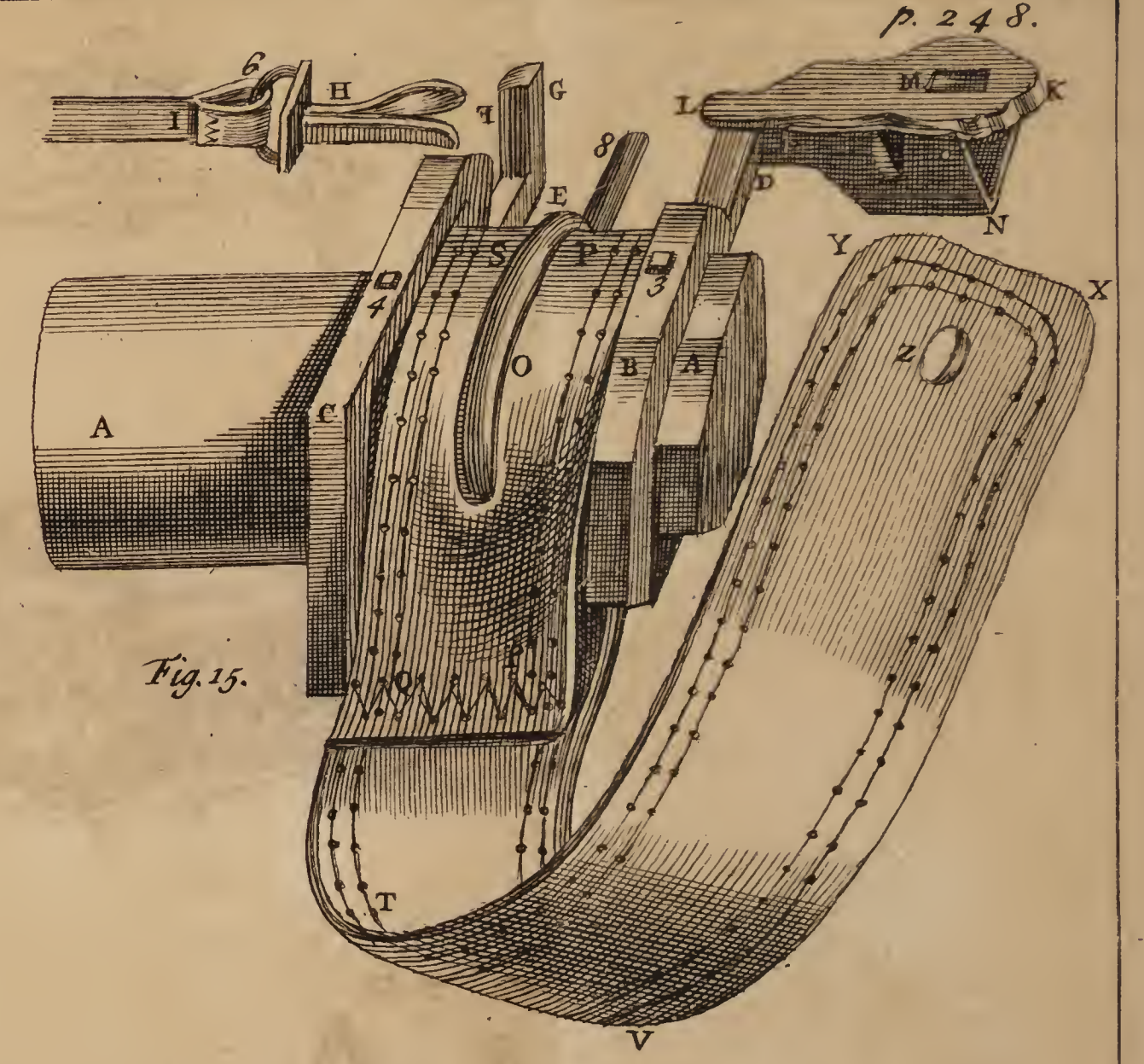
VII. *A comparison of the observations of the eclipse of the moon, Jan. 23, 1712, in the evening, made at Nuremberg, by M. J. P. Wurfelbaur, and at Paris, at the royal observatory by Mess. de la Hire*.*

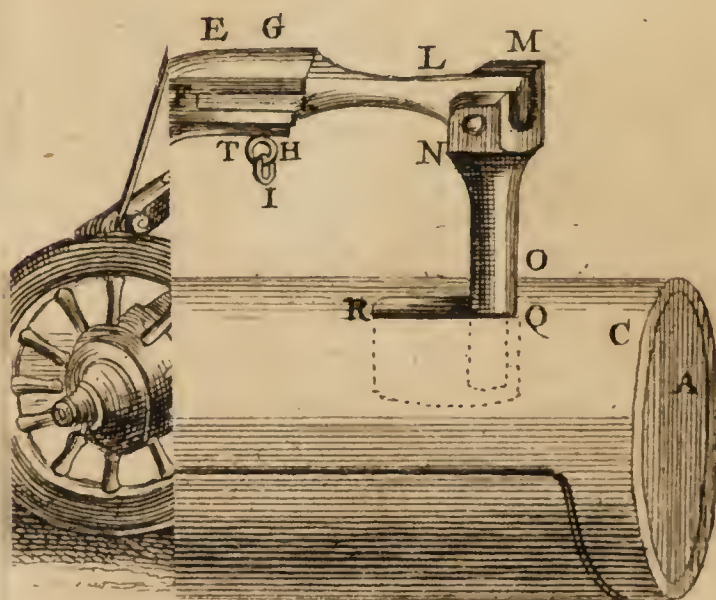
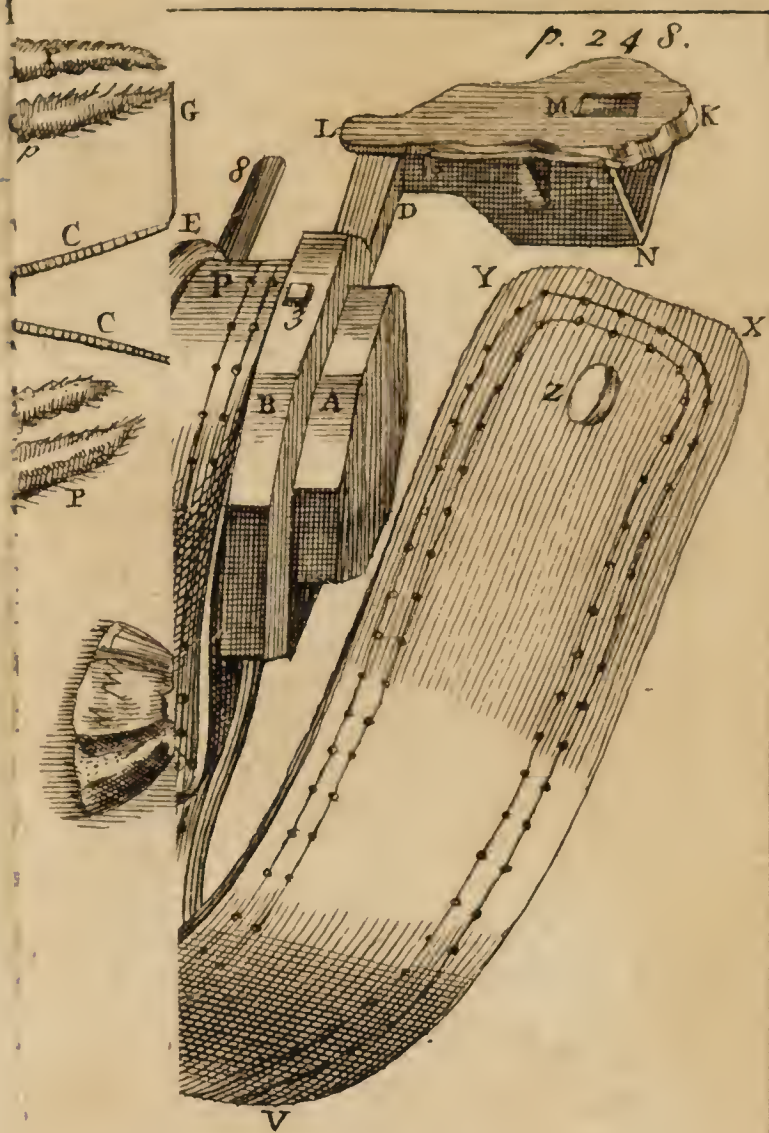
We are not to expect so great an exactness from the comparison of these observations, as from those of the eclipses of the satellites of Jupiter. And yet we ought not to neglect them, since we may obtain from them considerable advantages to geography, when we have not an opportunity of observing those of the satellites; and

* July. 30, 1712.



X
V
T
S
R 26 inch?
Q
P
O
N
M Fig. 12.
L
K
I
H
G
F
E 27 inch?
D
C





J. Mynde sc.

especially with regard to places that are very distant from each other; and if use had been formerly made of those which were observed, there would not have been such defective maps made as those which were published before the academy began to make use of the satellites of *Jupiter* for the determination of the longitudes.

We have drawn the following table from the observations of M. *Wurfelbaur*.

At Nuremberg.	Phases.	At Paris.	Difference.
h ' "	° '	h ' "	' "
7 28 40	I 0	6 50 50	37 50
7 32 19	I 30	6 58 50	33 29
7 50 40	3 0	7 25 20	35 20
8 53 35	2 20	8 17 35	36 0
8 56 55	2 0	8 18 19	38 36
9 2 51	I 30	8 30 20	32 31
9 18 10	End	8 44 0	34 10

Passage of the shadow thro' the spots.

h ' "		h ' "	' "
7 31 35	<i>Heraclides</i>	6 59 8	32 27
7 38 10	<i>Plato</i>	7 4 50	33 20
8 49 10	<i>Helicon</i>	8 16 10	33 0
8 53 35	<i>Harpalus</i>	8 16 10	37 25
8 58 55	<i>Plato</i>	8 24 15	34 40

The magnitude of the eclipse

At Nuremberg

3 digits, 42'.

At Paris

3 digits, 40'.

Taking a mean between these observations, we shall have for the difference of the meridians between *Nuremberg* and *Paris* $34' \frac{1}{2}$, which is pretty nearly as I determined it in my tables.

A
T A B L E

O F T H E

PAPERS contained in the ABRIDGMENT
of the HISTORY and MEMOIRS of the
ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at
PARIS, for the Year MDCCXIII.

In the HISTORY.

- I. **E**xperiments on sea-coal.
- II. **E** The history of the carcajou, an American animal.
- III. An observation on the areometer.

In the MEMOIRS.

- I. Meteorological observations made at the royal observatory, by M. de la Hire.
- II. Reflections on some new observations of the flux and reflux of the sea, made at the port of Brest, in the year 1712, by M. Cassini.
- III. On the height of the atmosphere, by M. de la Hire.
- IV. Of the figure of the earth, by M. Cassini.
- V. Experiments and reflections on the prodigious ductility of several substances, by M. de Reaumur.
- VI. Reflections on the observations of the tides, by M. Cassini.

VII.

VII. *A description of a portable machine, proper to support the glasses of very great foci, presented to the academy by M. Bianchini, by M. de Reaumur.*

VIII. *A history of an extraordinary sleeping, by M. Imbert.*

A N
ABRIDGMENT
O F T H E

PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOVERIES and OBSERVATIONS in the HISTORY of the ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at *Paris*, for the year 1713.

I. *Experiments on sea-coal.*

M. *Deslandes* being in *England*, made with the sea-coal that is burned there, two experiments which he believes have escaped the *English*.

Exp. 1. Having beaten some coal, he put about half an ounce of it into a glass of water, which became quite black. He left the glass exposed to the air all night upon the window, it was in winter, and the next day he found that the water which was frozen, was of a reddish colour. To give this colour to the water, the frost must have disengaged the sulphurs of the coal, though this action does not seem very well to agree with it.

Exp. 2. Some of the ashes of this coal infused in brandy, and mixed with steel filings, makes a black tincture, which clears as it heats. When it begins to boil, it takes a softer colour than the common iron-grey. *M. Deslandes* dyed some wool with this agreeable tincture, and no artist could imitate it.

II. *The history of the carcajou, an American animal.*

M. *Sarrafin*, the king's physician at *Canada*, and a correspondent of the academy, from whom we have seen a very curious and exact history of the *castor* or beaver in the memoirs of 1704*, has also sent such another of the *carcajou*, of which we here give an abridgment.

The *carcajou* is a carnivorous animal, which inhabits the coldest parts of *North-America*. It commonly weighs from 25 to 35lb. It is about 2 feet from the end of the snout to the tail which is about 8 inches long. Its head is very short, and thick, in proportion to the rest of its body, the eyes very small, the jaws very strong, and furnished with 32 sharp teeth; notwithstanding it is small, it is very strong and furious, and tho' carnivorous, it is so slow, and so heavy, that it crawls upon the snow rather than walks upon it.

As it walks, it can catch no other animal than the beaver which is as slow as its self, and that must be in summer when the beaver is out of its cabbin. But in the winter it can only break and destroy the cabbin, and surprize the beaver, which but very seldom succeeds, because the beaver has its sure retreat under the ice. However, as the beaver, even in winter goes into the woods to seek for fresh provisions, which he likes better than stale, the *carcajou* may attack him there.

The chase which is most successful to him is that of the elk, and *Caribou*, or *Canada* stag. The elk chuses in winter a place where there grows a quantity of *Anagyris fœtida*, or stinking bean

* Vol. II. pag. 181. of this abridgment.

refoil, because it feeds upon it, and when the ground is covered 5 or 6 feet with snow, he makes roads in these places which he never quits, unless he is pursued by the hunters. The *carcajou* having observed the elk's road, climbs up into a tree near which he must pass, and from thence leaps upon him, and cuts his throat in a moment. In vain does the elk lie upon the ground, or rub himself against the trees, for nothing will make the *carcajou* let go his hold, and the hunters have sometimes found pieces of his skin as large as one's hand, which have stuck to the tree against which the elk had rubbed himself.

The *caribou* is a sort of stag. It is very light, and runs upon the snow almost as fast as upon the ground, because his nails which are very broad, and furnished with rough hairs in their intervals, hinder him from sinking, and serve him instead of the *raquette* † of the savages. When it inhabits the thick woods, it makes roads in winter like the elk, and is in the same manner attacked there by the *carcajou*. But when it is in open places, where it has not need of making roads, and where it goes indifferently on all sides, the *carcajou* which might wait too long without success, is not accustomed to loose his time, and does not chase the *caribou* but in thick places ; so ingenious is his ardor for his prey.

III. *An observation on the areometer.*

As F. *Feuilleé* a minim, correspondent of the academy, read to it the relation of a voyage which he had just made into *South-America*, and

† A sort of broad shoes which the savages wear to keep their feet from sinking into the snow.

as he spoke of the observations which he had made with the areometer with the weight of the sea-water in different places, it was objected to him, that in a warmer climate the glass of the areometer must dilate, and consequently occupies more space in the water that is weighed, and makes it appear less heavy than it really is. But M. *Cassini* answered, that the water itself was also more dilated by the heat, and actually weighed less.

A N

A N ABRIDGMENT OF THE

PHILOSOPHICAL MEMOIRS of the ROYAL
ACADEMY of SCIENCES at *Paris*, for
the Year 1713.

I. *Meteorological observations made at the
royal observatory, by M. de la Hire**.

THESE are the observations of the quantity of rain-water, and melted-snow, with the changes of the weather marked by the thermometer and barometer during all the last year 1712. All these observations have been made as in the preceding years, in the same place, and with the same instrument. The height of water fallen in.

	<i>Lin.</i>		<i>Lin.</i>
Jan.	20 $\frac{1}{8}$	July	36 $\frac{1}{2}$
Feb.	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{4}$	Aug.	6
March	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	Sept.	39 $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{8}$
April	51 $\frac{1}{8}$	Oct.	25 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{4}$
May	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{1}{8}$	Novem.	16 $\frac{1}{4}$
June	23 $\frac{1}{8}$	Dec.	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{8}$

The sum of the height of water for the whole year, 254 lines $\frac{1}{4}$, or 21 inches, 2 lines $\frac{1}{4}$, which is more than the mean years, which we have determined at 19 inches.

My thermometer was at the lowest the last day of the year, and marked 24 $\frac{3}{4}$ of its parts pretty near the same as the 8th of *Jan.* which

* Jan. 7, 1713.

shews, that the cold has not been great, for it often falls to 14, and in the mean state it is at 48, as in the bottom of the caves of the observatory, where it always remains at the same point.

This thermometer was at the highest at 64 parts the 16th of *August*; but as that was at sun-rising, the time when I always make these observations, and as in the greatest heat of the day, which is towards 2 in the afternoon, it rose above the state it was at in the morning 12 parts, it must be considered as 76 for the greatest heat, and consequently the difference marked between the greatest cold, and the greatest heat will be 52 parts, the half of which is 26, which being added to 24, makes 50, which is not far from 48; by which we know, that the cold has been very near as much below the mean state, as the heat has been above it.

My common barometer was at the highest at 28 inches, 4 lines, $\frac{2}{3}$, the 10th of *Feb.* and about that time it was always very high. The heavens were then pretty serene, and very little north winds; and I observed also, that whenever this barometer was higher than 28 inches, which happened pretty often in the year, the wind was towards the north and east, and sometimes with fogs. I have another barometer where the quicksilver is always 3 lines higher than in that with which I commonly observe. This common barometer was at the lowest once only, the 6th of *Nov.* at 26 inches, 10 lines, $\frac{2}{3}$, the sky being serene with a moderate east-wind; but the quicksilver presently rose again, and the wind turned toward the west and south-west; the difference between the greatest and least height of this barometer, was 1 inch, 6 lines, as usual.

There was nothing remarkable in the winds of this year; but I observed in general, that in this country, every time the west and south-west wind prevailed for some time, the heavens were cloudy toward the evening, and at the beginning of the night; and that toward the morning it was serene. I think the reason of it is plain enough; for in the afternoon, the sun falling almost perpendicularly upon the seas, which are to the west of us, raises a great many vapours from them, which are afterwards brought to us about the beginning of the night; on the contrary, there arise but few vapours from these seas in the night time, and the wind continuing the same, the sky must be pretty clear toward the morning.

Remarks.

It generally happens that those which have been wounded in any part of the body feel pains there every time the weather is disposed to change. I think it may be accounted for in this manner: the texture of the affected part must be very fine, insomuch that it cannot be touched without feeling of pain; and in the change of the weather, the air becoming either lighter or heavier, makes an extraordinary impression upon these parts, either by compressing or extending them, as if they were touched by it, which may cause the pain which is there felt.

Of the declination of the needle.

We found the declination of the needle to be 11 degrees, 15 minutes, *Dec.* 30. This observation was made with the needle of 8 inches long, which we commonly use, and in the same place as in the preceding years, which is a thick pillar placed at the end of the terrass of the observatory toward
the

the south. The side of the box of the compass is applied against one of the faces of this pillar; and it has been for a long time confirmed, that this face was exactly turned toward the west, by putting a thick rule against it which bears two sights at its extremities, to see if the rays of the sun, which pass through these sights, agree with the true noon marked by the great pendulum clocks regulated by the sun, which was found very just; for this building had been placed with a great deal of care and precaution, by the late M. *Picard*.

We observed also at the same time, the declination of the loadstone with another needle of only 4 inches long, and found it the same with that of 8 inches.

II. *Reflections on some observations of the flux and reflux of the sea, made at the port of Brest, in the year 1712; by M. Cassini*.*

Since the royal academy of sciences has undertaken to examine the phænomena of the flux and reflux of the sea, we have received a great number of observations made in several parts of *France*, which have served to find new rules, as well to establish the time of the tides in each of these ports, as to determine their different heights: the greatest part of these observations seem to prove that there is a great relation between the motions of the moon, and those of the tides, since not only the great and small tides follow pretty exactly the several phases of the moon, but even the different heights which are there observed are

* Feb. 1. 1713.

in proportion to the several distances of the moon from the earth.

But as we might suspect that these various effects had been produced by some unknown cause, which had concurred at the same time with the motions of the moon by a sort of chance ; twas necessary to be assured of it by a greater number of observations.

We have had the opportunity of making them by a new journal of observations of the flux and reflux of the sea made at *Brest*, which begins the 1st of *February* 1712, where the first ended, and has been continued to the 12th of *July* of the same year.

In this interval of time there have been six new and five full moons, the tides of which have been observed; that which happened the earliest was observed the 6th of *February* at 3^h 9' in the morning ; and that which happened the latest was observed *April* the 6th at 4^h 12^m $\frac{1}{2}$ P.M. with an hour, and three minutes difference from one to the other.

However if we suppose the mean time of the high tide at *Brest* in the new and full moons to be 3^h 45'. the same that was determined in the preceding memoir, and make use of the common equation of two minutes, for each hour, that the mean time of the high water is faster or slower, with regard to that of the new or full moon, we shall find that the high tide ought to have happened *February* 6th, the day of the greatest acceleration at 3^h 7' $\frac{1}{2}$ in the morning, within about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ minute of what was observed; and that *April* the 6th, the day of the greatest retardation, the high tide ought to have happened at 4^h 15' within about 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ minutes of what was observed.

The other observations which are to the number of 15, agree for the most part to the calculation

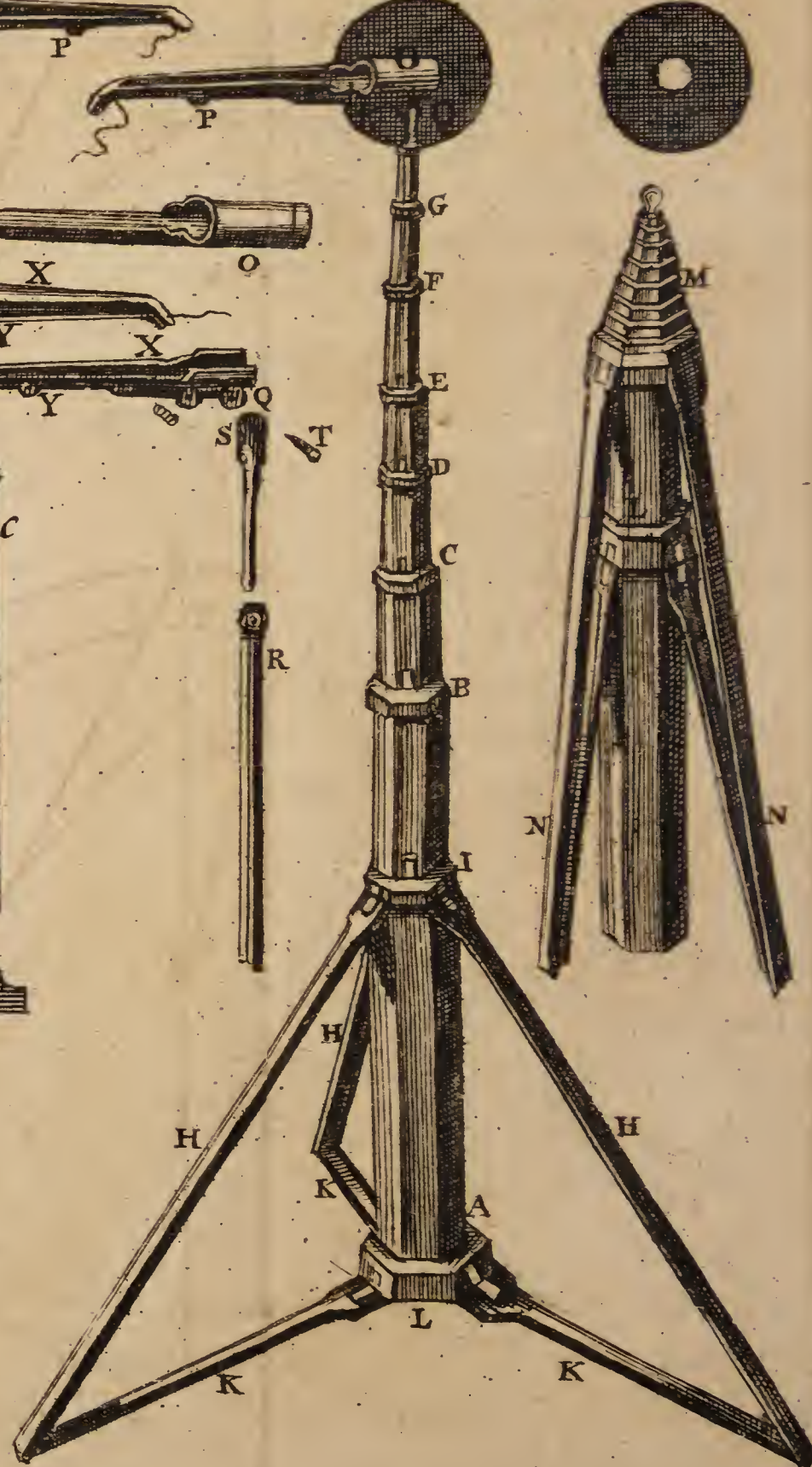
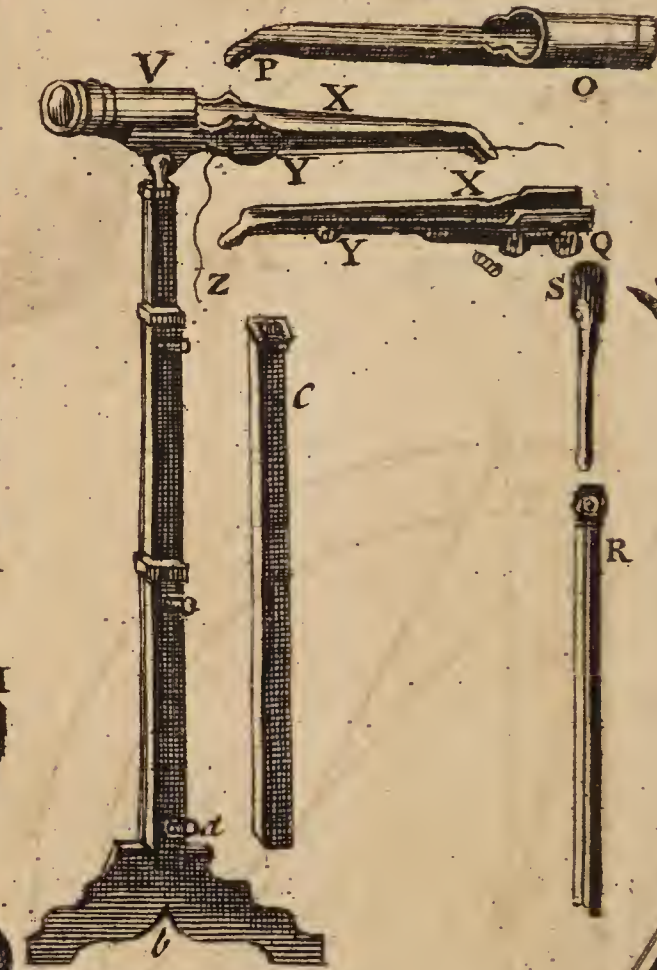
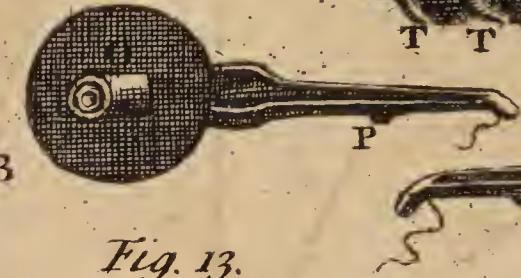
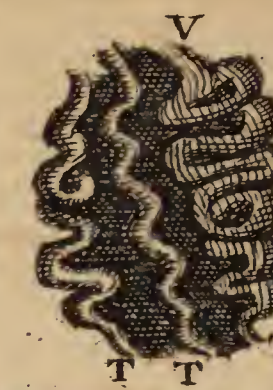
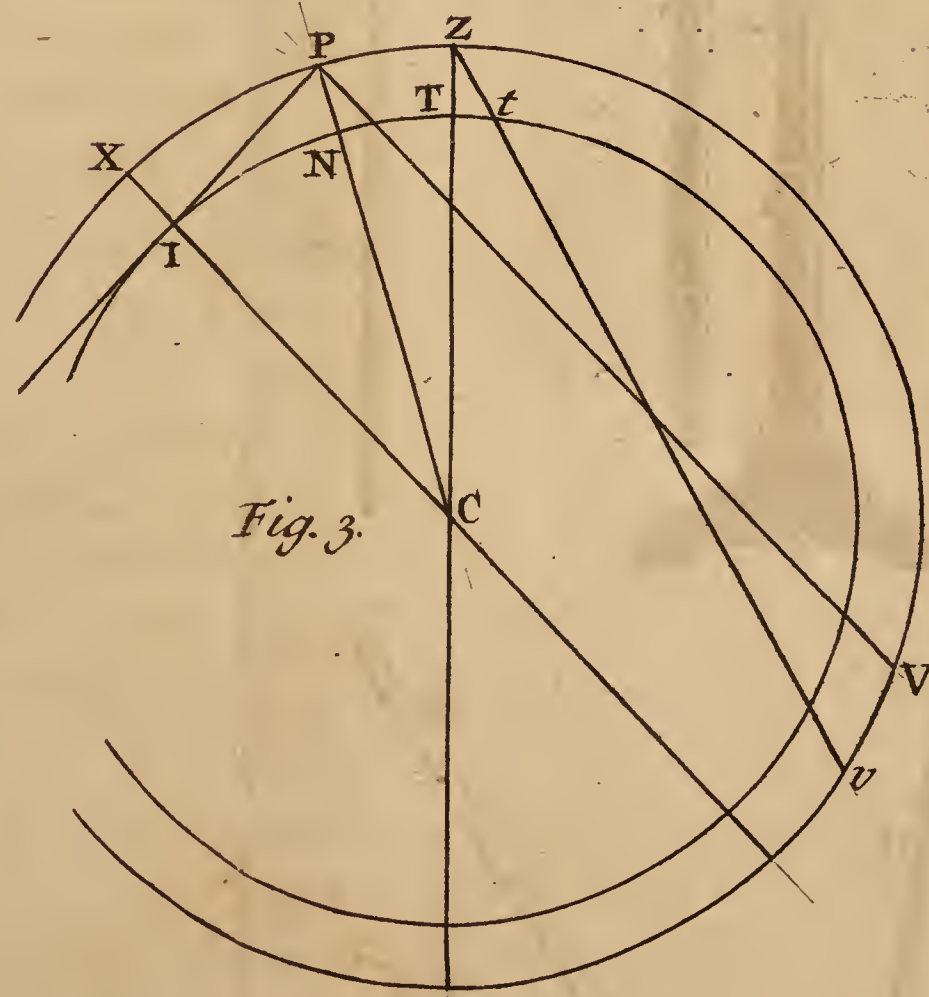
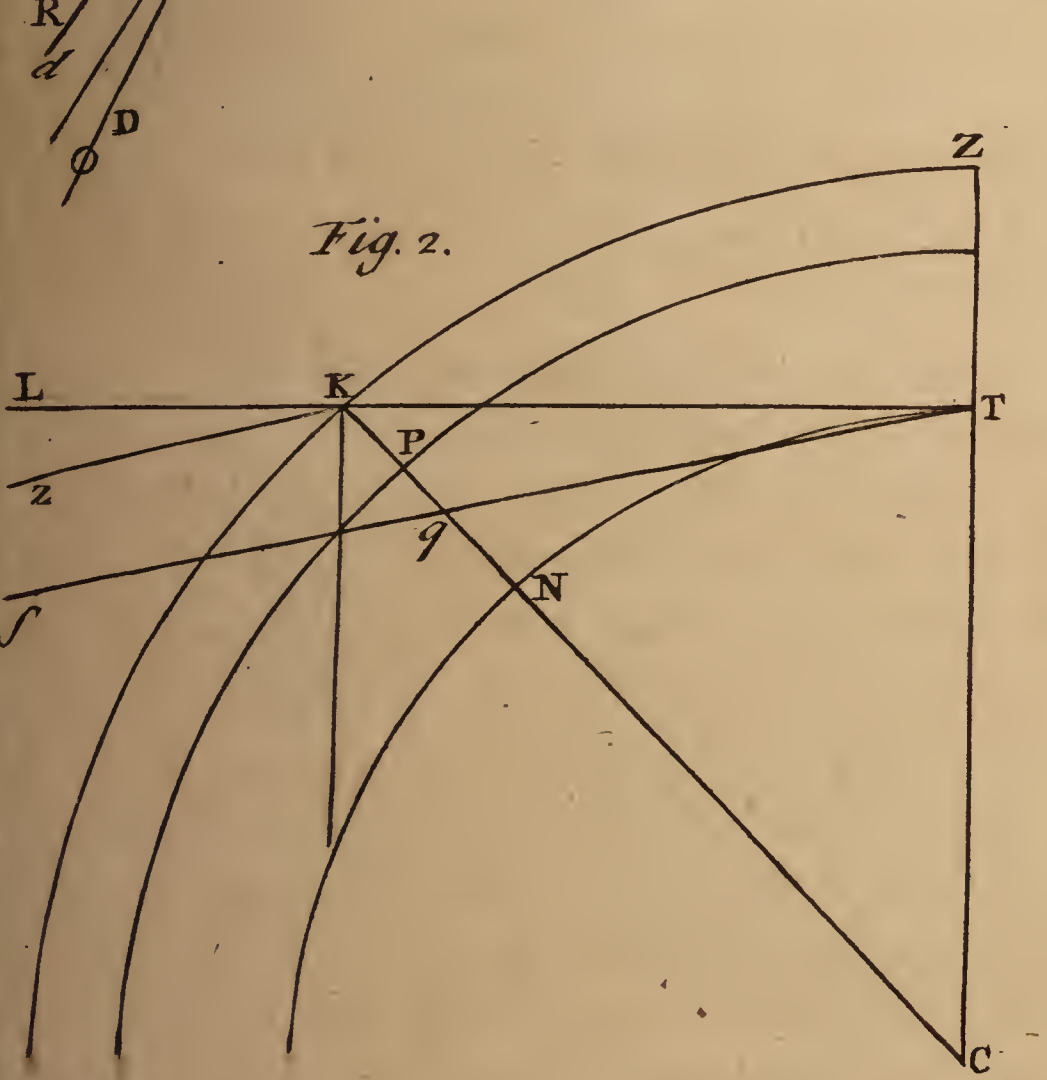


Fig. 11.

Fig. 12.



Fig. 3.

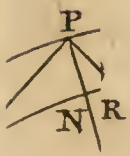
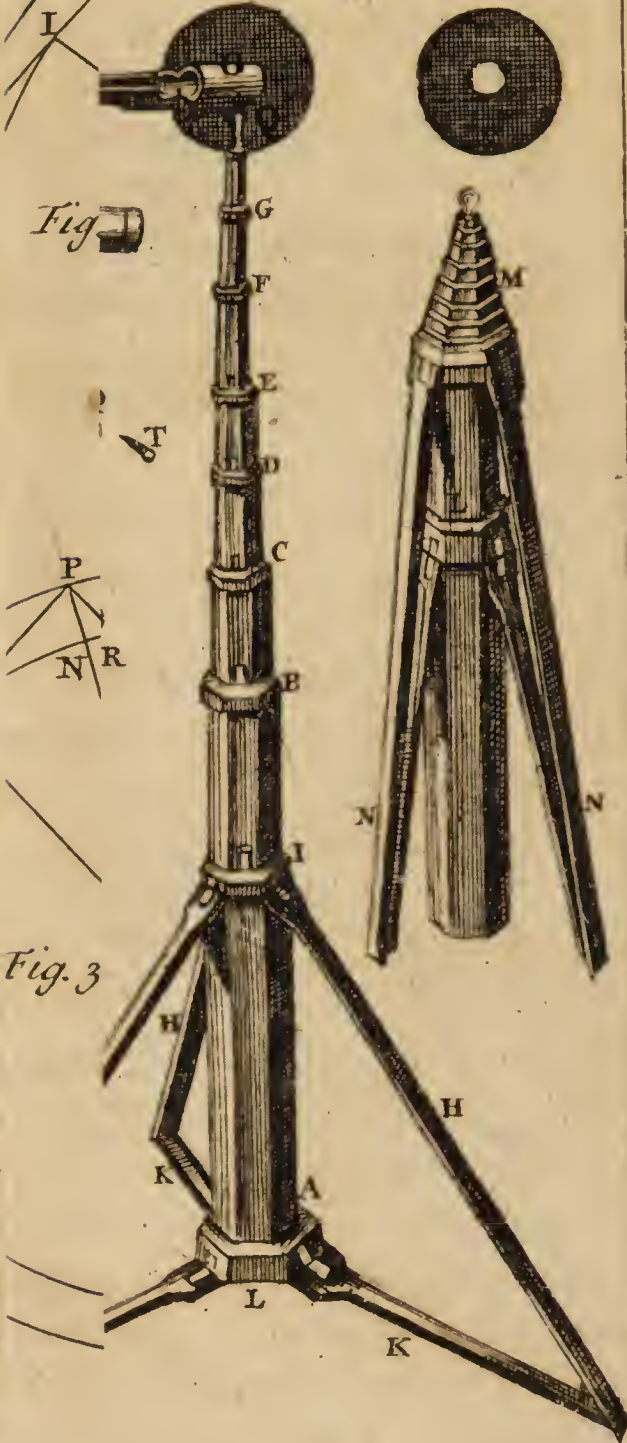


Fig. 3.



lation within a few minutes, and the farthest distant are only 14 minutes from it, which is an exactness to which we could not hope to have arrived if we consider that it is often difficult to be assured within a quarter, or even almost half an hour of the high-water.

With regard to the time of low-water, observed in the same phases of the moon, we find that it agrees also pretty exactly to the calculation, with this difference only, that the sea takes up some minutes more in falling than in rising, as we have already observed. This difference may rise at *Brest* to about a quarter of an hour in the new and full moons, and to half an hour in the quadratures; and this rule is so generally observed, that of all the observations that we have examined for above the space of a year, there are only four or five which are not conformable to it.

As to the time of the high-water observed in the quadratures, it is subject to more irregularities than in the new and full moons.

The high-water which happened the earliest, was observed the 29th of *March* at 8^h 8' in the morning, and that which happened the latest was observed the 28th of *April* at 10^h 11' at night, with a difference from one to the other of 2^h 3'. But these differences are partly corrected, by supposing the mean time of the high water at *Brest* in the quadratures at 8^h 57', the same that was determined in the preceding memoir, and making use of the common equation of $2\frac{1}{2}$ minutes for each hour, that the mean time of the high water is faster or slower with regard to the time of the quadratures. For we shall find that the high tide ought to have happened the 29th of *March*, the day of the greatest acceleration at 8^h 34' in the morning, within about 26 minutes of what

what was observed, and that the 28th of *April*, the day of the greatest retardation, the high tide ought to have happened at 9^h 46' at night, within about 25 minutes of the observation.

We have observed in the preceding memoirs, that the retardation of the tides is greater toward the quadratures, than toward the new and full moons. This is conformable to our observations, and seems surprising when we consider, that in the new and full moons, the sea rises sometimes at *Brest*, to the height of 21 feet, whereas in the quadratures it sometimes rises only 4 or five feet, and seldom to 11 feet.

However if we suppose that the motion of the tides is made by a sort of impulse, as we have great reason to imagine; we find that experience may agree with reason; for the pressure of the air upon the sea, may be such as not only to make the sea rise to a greater degree of height in the new and full moon than in the quadratures, but also to make it arrive to this greater height with more velocity.

With regard to the time of the greatest tides in each lunation, we find that it happens the most often at *Brest* a day after the new or full moon, as the smallest tides happen also a day after the quadratures. We have observed at *Dunkirk* and *Havre de Grace*, that the great and small tides there, generally happen two days after these phases of the moon, so that it seems that the pressure which is made upon the sea in the new and full moons, and in the quadratures is communicated sooner at *Brest* than at *Havre de Grace* and *Dunkirk*, which appears conformable to reason; the western extremity of *Bretagne*, where *Brest* is situated, being much more advanced toward the ocean where the pressure is made, than the ports of *Dunkirk* and *Havre*, which are both in the *English* channel.

We have remarked already that the various heights which we observe in the tides, follow pretty exactly the various distances of the moon from the earth ; that when the moon at the time of new or full, is near its *perigeum*, the tide is greater than in the next *syzygia*, where it is near its *apogeum*, this is confirmed by these last observations ; for the 4th of *June* 1712, the day of the new moon, this planet was near its *apogeum*, its distance from the earth being 1064 parts, the mean of which is 1000. Besides they observed that day, which was the day of the greatest tide, the height of the full sea to be 16 feet 2 inches, above a fixed point, which they had taken for the bound of the measures, and that of low-water 2 feet 0 inches, which gives the quantity of the elevation of the tide 14 feet 2 inches. The 19th of *June* the day after the full moon, this planet was near its *perigeum*, its distance from the earth being 935 parts, the mean of which is 1000. They also observed the 21st of *June*, the day of the greatest tide, the height of the full sea to be 18 feet 4 inches, above the fixed point; and the height of the low-water 10 inches below this point, which gives the elevation of the tide 19 feet, 2 inches, greater by 5 feet, than in the preceding observation, when the moon was near its *apogeum*.

Tho' all these observations agree in proving that the various distances of the moon from the earth contribute very much to the various elevations that are observed in the tides ; we do not pretend that they are the sole cause of all the variations that are there observed ; and it even appears, that there are other causes which may concur in making the height of the tides increase or diminish. We do not here speak of those accidental causes, which it would be difficult to give

give rules to; as for example, of the force and situation of the winds, of the different direction of the sea-coast, which not only may accelerate or retard the time of the tides, but may also cause different elevations to it. But we only undertake to determine those which have some regular period.

Now in examining all the observations which have been made from the 6th of *Feb.* 1712, to the 12th of *July* of the same year, we find that the highest tide happened the 24th of *March* at night, and the 25th in the morning when the sea rose to the height of 19 feet, 1 inch. The low-water was observed the 24th in the morning, 1 foot, 6 inches, below the fixed point, so that the elevation of the sea was, the 24th of *March*, 20 feet, 7 inches. The moon was then nearer its *perigeum* than its *apogeum*, its distance from the earth being 977 parts, the mean of which is 1000; but we cannot attribute the whole of this elevation of the tide to the proximity of the moon with regard to the earth, since the height of the tide was observed the 24th of *March*, greater by 1 foot, 5 inches, than *June* 21, the time when the moon was much nearest its *perigeum*; it appears therefore that there was in the month of *March*, some other cause which contributed to the elevation of the tide; and as this observation was made near the vernal equinox, which happened the 20th, at 11^h 19' P.M. and that of *June* 21, near the summer solstice which happened at 11^h 17' in the morning: this has given us room to conjecture that all things being equal, the tides are greater in the equinoxes than in the solstices.

In the next new moon which happened on the 6th of *April*, the moon was nearer its *apogeum* than

than its *perigeum*; its distance from the earth being 1032, of which the mean is 1000; and *April* the 7th in the morning, they observed the full sea to be 18 feet, 2 inches; and that of the low-water to be 5 inches, which gives the elevation of the sea for that day 17 feet, 7 inches, smaller by three feet than the 24th of *March*. And it ought to be so for two reasons; one of which is, that the moon was farther distant from the earth the 7th of *April*, than the 24th of *March*, and the other that it was farther distant from the equinoctial.

These observations are confirmed by those which were made at *Brest* the preceding year. For the 30th of *June*, 1711, the distance of the moon from the earth being 960, the elevation of the tide was observed the 1st of *July* to be 18 feet, 1 inch, less by 2 feet, 10 inches, than the 14th of *Sept.* near the equinox, when it was observed to be 20 feet, 11 inches, the distance of the moon from the earth being the 12th of *Sept.* the day of the new moon 969, that is, very little different from that of the 30th of *June*.

It appears therefore by these observations, that the different heights that are observed in the tides, depend upon two causes, whereof the principal, which hitherto is most confirmed by our observations, is the various distance of the moon from the earth; the second is its proximity or distance from the equinoctial; and that the combination of these two causes produces the chief *phænomena* which we observe in the height of the tides.

It follows from hence, 1st, That when the new or full moon meets in its *perigeum*, and at the same time in the equinoxes, then the tide which immediately follows, is the highest that is possible.

2d. That when the new and full moon meet

in the equinoxes, towards the mean distances, then the height of the tides is greater than in the new or full moons, which happen toward the mean distances, and near the *solstices*.

3d. That when the new or full moon meets in its *apogeeum*, and at the same time in the *solstices*, then the high-water is the lowest that is possible. The two first rules agree with that which we have hereabove marked, and the last is confirmed by the observation of the 4th of *June* 1712, for the moon being then near its *apogeeum*, and the summer *solstice*, the height of the full sea was observed to be 16 feet, 2 inches, and that of the low-water 2 feet, 0 inches, which gives the elevation of the tide 14 feet 2 inches, which is the least that has been observed at the new and full moons in above a year. The 5th of *July* following the sun was at equal distance from the *solstice*, but the distance of the moon from the earth was 1061 a little less than the 4th of *June*, which ought to have caused a greater elevation in the tide, as in effect was observed. For the 5th of *July* in the morning, the height of the full sea was observed 16 feet 3 inches, and that of the low-water, 1 foot 8 inches, which gives the elevation of the tide 14 feet 7 inches, greater by 5 inches than the 4th of *June*.

As to the small tides which follow the quadratures, they observe the same that we have done in the preceding memoirs, that their various elevations depend partly upon the various distance of the moon from the earth. For example, the 14th of *February* 1712, the day of the first quarter, the moon being near its *apogeeum*, and its distance from the earth 1062, the height of the full sea was observed the 15th of *February* at night, 10 feet 9 inches 6', and the height of the low-water 5 feet 2 inches, so that the elevation of the tide
that

that day was only 5 feet 7 inches 6'. The twenty-ninth of *February* following, the day of the third quarter, the moon being near its *perigeum*, and its distance from the earth 975, they observed, the 2d of *March* in the morning, the height of the full sea, 11 feet 9 inches, greater by 11 inches 6 lines than the 15th of *February*.

The 15th of *March*, the day of the first quarter, the moon being near its *apogeum*, and its distance from the earth 1063, the height of the full sea was observed the 16th of *March* in the morning 10 feet 10 inches, and the height of the low-water 6 feet 4 inches; so that the elevation of the sea that day, was only 4 feet 6 inches, a little less than the 15th of *February*, which ought to happen, the moon being then a little nearer the earth, than in the preceding observation of the month.

In the quadratures which happened when the moon was almost at equal distance from the earth, they observed almost the same height in the elevation of the tides. For the 12th of *June*, the day of the first quarter, the distance of the moon from the earth being 1020, they observed that 12 in the morning, which was the day of the smallest tide, the height of the full sea 12 feet 9 inches, and that of the low-water 3 feet 5 inches, so that the elevation of the sea, was that day 9 feet, 4 inches.

The 25th of *June* following, the day of the last quarter, the moon's distance from the earth being 1028, they observed the 28th in the morning, the height of the full sea, 12 feet 5 inches 8', and that of the low-water, 3 feet 11 inches 4'; so that the elevation of the sea was that day 8 feet 6 inches 4', a little less than that of the 28th of *June*, as it ought to have been observed, the distance of the moon from the earth, being less the 13th of *June*, than the 28th. These two observations

having been made near the summer *solstice*, we have compared them, with those which were made near the equinoxes, and found that all things being equal, the small tides which follow the quadratures, are greater near the *solstices*, than near the equinoxes ; for the height of the full sea, was observed the 16th of *March*, the day of the smallest tide 10 feet 10 inches, the moon being near its *apogee*, and the 31st of *March*, 13 feet 2 inches, the moon being nearer its *perigee*. Taking a mean, we shall have the middle height of the tides, in the equinoxes at *Brest*, 12 feet, smaller by 7 or 8 inches, than the mean height drawn from the observations of the 15th and 28th of *June*, made in the *solstices*.

Altho' this effect seems contrary to what we observed in the new and full moons, the tides of which are greater towards the equinoxes than towards the *solstices* ; we see however that it may depend upon the same cause ; for the moon being in one of its quarters at the time of the equinox, runs over by its daily motion a parallel circle, a little distant from the tropicks, and the pressure that it causes upon the sea, being made by a small circle, must be less felt. On the contrary the moon being in one of its quarters at the time of the *solstice*, runs over by its daily motion, the equinoctial, or a parallel very little distant from it, and consequently, its pressure upon the waters of the sea, which is made according to a great circle of the earth, must be greater than when it run over one of the tropicks.

It appears by this that the several heights which are observed in the tides of the equinoxes and *solstices*, must not be regulated exactly by the time of the equinoxes and *solstices*, but by the greater or less declination of the moon, with regard to
the

the equinoctial ; for the sun being in the vernal equinox, and the moon in its last quarter, that is in the southern signs, the height of the tide must be much less, when the latitude of the moon is southern than when it is northern ; and for the same reason, the sun being in the summer solstice at the time of the new moon, the height of the tide must be much smaller when the latitude of the moon is northern, than when it is southern.

From these observations we may draw these two general rules.

1st, That all things being equal, the tides ought to be less, when the moon, being in its *apogeeum* and in its southern signs, its latitude is at the same time southern ; or else when the moon being in its *apogeeum*, and in the northern signs, its latitude is also northern.

2d, That on the contrary, the tides must be greater, when the moon being in its *perigeum* runs over the equinoctial, without any declination.

It is difficult to find observations that have been made exactly, in these different circumstances ; it will be sufficient for us to observe that the 16th of *June* 1711, the day of the new moon, the distance of the moon from the earth being 1048, that is the moon being near its *apogeeum*, with a southern declination of $26^{\circ} 36'$, which is the greatest that has been found in more than a year, the height of the full sea was observed the 17th, to be 16 feet 2 inches $6'$, which is one of the smallest that has been observed. The 4th of *June*, the year following, the day of the new moon, the distance of the moon from the earth being 1064, and the northern declination of the moon $25^{\circ} 10'$, the height of the greatest tide was observed that day, 16 feet 2 inches, which is the least that we have found

found at *Brest*, in the observations of the new and full moons.

The same effect is observed in the quadratures, for the 5th of *September* 1711, the day of the last quarter, the moon's distance from the earth being 1061, and the northern declination of the moon $26^{\circ} 31'$, which is one of the greatest that has happened from the 23d of *June* 1711, to the 11th of *July* 1712. The height of the smallest tide was observed the 6th of *September*, 10 feet, 3 inches, which is the lowest that has been observed for above a year; the height of the low-water was observed at night, to be 5 feet 11 inches, so that the elevation of the sea that day was only 4 feet 4 inches.

The 15th of *March*, the following year, 1712, the day of the last quarter, the distance of the moon from the earth being 1063, pretty near the same as the 5th of *September*, and the moon's northern declination $25^{\circ} 45'$, a little less than in the observation of the preceding year, the height of the smallest tide was observed the 16th of *March*, 10 feet 10 inches, a little greater than the 5th of *September* 1711, but one of the lowest that had been observed, the elevation of the sea that day being only 4 feet 6 inches.

As to the great tides which ought to happen when the moon is in its *perigeum*, and runs over the equinoctial, we have no observations at *Brest* that have been made in these circumstances; it will be sufficient to remark, that the 12th of *September* 1711, the distance of the moon from the earth being 969, and its declination with regard to the equinoctial $2^{\circ} 39'$, which is the smallest that happened in the new and full moons, from the 16th of *June* 1711, to the 11th of *July* 1712, the height of the full sea was observed the 14th of *September*,

18 feet 11 inches, and that of low-water 2 feet below the fixed point, which gives the elevation of the tide for that day 20 feet 11 inches, which is one of the greatest that happened at *Brest*, in that interval of time.

We may here observe that the difference between the circles of declination from one degree to another, continually increases by receding from the equator, and approaching to the pole; and that consequently the variation of the declination of the moon, must produce a less sensible effect upon the tides near the equinoctial than towards the tropicks.

The observations here above related, seem sufficiently to prove that the different declinations of the moon, with regard to the equinoctial, contribute to increase or diminish the heights of the tides, as well as the various distances of the moon from the earth. These two causes being generally complicated, it is necessary in order to distinguish them, to have a greater number of observations, made in different situations of the moon, as well with regard to the earth, as with regard to the equinoctial; for this reason we have thought it necessary to examine some which were made at *Brest* in 1692.

The journal of these observations begins *June* 6, 1692, and ends the last of *October* of the same year. They have there marked every day the height of the full sea, with regard to a rock called the *Rose*, which is at the entrance and within the port, and have also added the temperature of the air, and the situation and force of the wind.

By the examination that we have made of all these observations, we have found, that in this interval of time the greatest tide happened the
12th

12th of *September* 1692, two days after the new moon, the sea being that day risen to the height of 28 feet 7 inches. Having calculated the situation of the moon for the time of the preceding new moon, which happened the 10th of *September*, at 6^h 12' PM. we found that this planet was very near its *perigeum*, its distance from the earth being 936 parts, the mean of which is 1000; the moon was also very near the equinoctial, its southern declination being only 3° 11', which could cause very little variation in the height of the sea.

In the other observations of the tides, made at the new or full moons; this planet was not only farther distant from the earth, than on the 10th of *September*, but even its declination, with regard to the equinoctial, was greater; thus all the tides ought to be smaller than the 12th of *September*, which is conformable to the observations.

In the full moon following, which happened the 25th of *September*, at 10^h 54' in the morning, the moon was in its *apogeum*, its distance from the earth was 1065, and its northern declination 4° 59'. The 25th they also observed the height of the sea, to be 25 feet 5 inches, 3 feet 2 inches lower than the 12th of the same month.

The 14 of *June* the same year, the day of the new moon, the distance of the moon from the earth being 993, the mean of which is 1000, and its northern declination being 27° 10', which is the highest that happened, they observed the 16th the height of the sea, 25 feet 7 inches, lower by 1 foot 5 inches, than the mean height of the tides, drawn from observations made in the month of *September*, when the moon was near the equator.

As to the small tides observed at *Brest*, in the quadratures, we find that the greatest hap-

pened the 23d of *June*, two days after the first quarter; the sea being risen that day to the height of 21 feet 4 inches. The moon was then near its *perigeum*, its distance from the earth being 977, it was also very near the equinoctial, its northern declination being only $3^{\circ} 42'$.

The 8th of the preceding *June*, the height of the sea was observed 19 feet 1 inch, less by 2 feet 3 inches than the 23d of *June*, as they ought to have observed, the moon being the 6th of *June*, the day of the last quarter, in its *apogeum*, and its distance from the earth 1064.

We see therefore by these observations made at *Brest* in 1692, as well as by those that have been made the last years in the same port, that the distance of the moon from the earth, and its declination, with regard to the equator, contribute very much to the increase and diminution that are observed in the heights of the tides.

Upon these principles we have prepared tables, to find at *Brest*, the height of the tides, as well in the new and full moons, as in the quadratures.

For this, we suppose that at *Brest*, in the great tides which follow the new or full moons, when the planet is in its *perigeum*, and at the same time runs over the equinoctial, the height of the full sea is 20 feet; and that when the moon is in its *apogeum*, and upon the equinoctial, the height of the full sea is 17 feet 0 inches; and that when it is in its *apogeum*, and its declination with regard to the equinoctial is $28^{\circ} 50'$, which is the greatest that it can have, the height of the full sea is 15 feet, 6 inches. We also suppose that in the small tides which follow the quadratures, when the moon is

in its *perigeum*, and runs over the equinoctial, the height of the full sea is $14^{\circ} 0'$; that when this planet is in its *apogeum*, and upon the equinoctial, the height of the full sea is 12 feet; and that when it is in its *apogeum*, and its declination is $28^{\circ} 50'$, the height of the full sea is $10^{\circ} 6'$.

According to these rules, the difference of the height of the full sea caused by various distances of the moon from the earth in the new and full moons, is three feet, twice as great as that which is produced by the declination of the moon with regard to the equinoctial.

But as the difference between the distance of the moon from the earth in its *apogeum*, and in its *perigeum*, is smaller by $\frac{1}{3}$ in the quadratures than in the new and full moons, they have supposed that the difference of the height of the full sea caused by various distances of the moon from the earth in the quadratures, is only two feet, conformable to the observations.

In the other situations of the moon with regard to the earth; the height of the full sea is proportionable to the various distances of the moon from the earth. To find the variations caused by the declination of the moon with regard to the equinoctial, we have taken declinations of which the sines of the complements are in arithmetical proportion, that we may be able to distribute equally the height of the tides.

We shall find by the means of these tables, and of the following rules, the height of the great and small tides at *Brest*, as well in the new and full moons as in the quadratures.

Rule

Rule I.

To find at *Brest* the height of the greatest tide, which ought to happen in a given new or full moon.

Seek by the astronomical tables the distance of the moon from the earth, and its declination with regard to the equinoctial; take at the top of the first table the distance of the moon from the earth, and at the side its declination, and you will find over-against it the height of the greatest tide.

Rule II.

To find at *Brest* the height of the smallest tide, which ought to follow one of the quadratures.

Seek by the astronomical tables, the distance of the moon from the earth, and its declination; take at the top of the second table the distance of the moon from the earth, and at its side its declination, the height of the tide which answers to these two figures, will be the height of the smallest tide which follows the quadrature given.

Examp. 1. We seek the height of the greatest tide which happened in the new moon *October 1711*.

We shall find, that the 12th of *October* at 6° 0' in the morning, the time of the new moon, the distance of this planet from the earth was 947, and its southern declination 12° 13'. Take in the first table over-against 95, and 12° 0', the height of the greatest tide which

we shall find to be $19^{\circ} 6'$ exactly the same as was observed.

Examp. 2. We seek the height of the greatest tide which happened in the new moon of *June 1712*.

We find, that the 4th of *June* at $7^h 25'$ in the morning, the time of the new moon, the northern declination of that planet was $25^{\circ} 10'$, and its distance from the earth 1064. Take in the first table over-against 106, and $25^{\circ} 33'$, the height of the greatest tide that we shall find 15 feet, 10 inches, only 4 inches less than what was observed.

Examp. 3. We seek the height of the smallest tide which follows the first quarter of the moon the 23d of *June, 1712*.

We find, that the 25th of *June* at $8^h 18'$ P. M. the northern declination of the moon was $6^{\circ} 30'$, and its distance from the earth 987. Take in the second table over-against 99, and $6^{\circ} 56'$, the height of the smallest tide which we shall find to be 13 feet, 8 inches, within about 4 lines of what was observed.

Examp. 4. We seek the height of the smallest tide which followed the first quarter of the moon, *Sept. 5, 1712*.

We shall find at that time the moon's distance from the earth was 1061, and its northern declination $26^{\circ} 28'$. Take in the second table over-against 106, and $26^{\circ} 22'$, the height of the smallest tide which we shall find $10^{\circ} 9' 0''$, only 6 inches greater than what they observed.

We

We might draw up like rules to find the height of the tides in the other ports of the ocean, provided we had several observations of the full sea made in different situations of the moon, and principally when it is near its *apogeeum* and its *perigeum*, when it runs over the equinoctial; or when it is towards its greatest declination.

TABLE of the height of the great tides in the new and full moons.

Declination of the moon.		Distance of the moon from the earth.															
		94	95	96	97	93	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	105	105	105	
Height of the full sea at Breit in the new and full moons.																	
0	0	20	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
6	6	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
12	12	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
18	18	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
24	24	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
30	30	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
36	36	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
42	42	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
48	48	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
54	54	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
60	60	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
66	66	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
72	72	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
78	78	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
84	84	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
90	90	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
96	96	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
102	102	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
108	108	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
114	114	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
120	120	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
126	126	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
132	132	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
138	138	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
144	144	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
150	150	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
156	156	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
162	162	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
168	168	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
174	174	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
180	180	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19

TABLE of the height of the small tides in the quadratures.

<i>Distance of the moon from the earth.</i>												
	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105	106			
<i>Height of the full sea at Brest in the quadratures.</i>												
0	14	0	13	9	13	6	13	3	13	12	9	12
6	13	11	13	8	13	5	13	2	13	12	11	11
9	13	10	13	7	13	4	13	1	13	12	11	10
12	13	9	13	6	13	3	13	0	13	12	11	9
13	13	8	13	5	13	2	13	1	13	12	11	8
15	13	7	13	4	13	1	13	10	13	12	11	7
16	13	6	13	3	13	0	13	9	13	12	11	6
18	13	5	13	2	13	11	13	8	13	12	11	5
19	13	4	13	1	13	10	13	7	13	12	11	4
20	13	3	13	0	13	9	13	6	13	12	11	3
21	13	2	13	11	13	8	13	5	13	12	11	2
22	13	1	13	10	13	7	13	4	13	12	11	1
23	13	0	13	9	13	6	13	3	13	12	11	0
24	12	11	13	8	13	5	13	2	13	12	11	11
25	12	10	13	7	13	4	13	1	13	12	11	10
26	12	9	13	6	13	3	13	0	13	12	11	9
27	12	8	13	5	13	2	13	11	13	12	11	8
28	12	7	13	4	13	1	13	10	13	12	11	7
28	12	6	13	3	13	0	13	9	13	12	11	6

III. *On the height of the atmosphere, by M. de la Hire**.

Let the circle TNI^{\dagger} , be one of the great circles of the earth, of which the centre is C , and let the meeting of the plane of this circle, with the surface of the atmosphere, which I suppose spherical, be the circle ZPA , of which the centre is also in C ; let the sensible horizon of a point T , of the surface of the earth be TL , which shall be perpendicular to the vertical line ZTC of the same point T .

We know by the observations that a ray of light which comes from a star, and makes with the horizon TL , an angle of $32'$, underneath, as PM , after having traversed the atmosphere, comes to the eye at T , where it appears in the horizon TL ; and this ray must describe in the atmosphere a curve, which shall be touched at the point T , by the horizon LT ; for the ray MP , meeting the surface of the atmosphere obliquely in P , draws nearer the perpendicular CP , by advancing toward T , and turning its concavity toward the earth, because the atmosphere is a body which continually increases in density as it approaches the earth. This angle of $32'$ is what we call the horizontal refraction.

It follows from hence, that all the luminous points which should be upon the curve PT , within the atmosphere would appear in the horizon TL , and those which should be underneath would not appear from the point T , and if we would consider the atmosphere, as a matter quite homo-

* Feb. 25, 1713.

† Plate VI. Fig. 1. Page

geneous like water, and as many astronomers have done, it is evident the same thing would always follow; for then a ray mp which should make with TL an angle mpL of $32'$ by meeting the atmosphere in p would turn aside by the right horizontal line pT ; but this supposition not being natural, we shall here make use of the curve PT .

If thro' the point P we therefore bring the ray of the earth $CNPK$ which meets its surface in N , and the horizon TL in K , and take an arch NI equal to the arch NT , it is evident that IK would be perpendicular to the semi-diameter of the earth CI ; and that the eye being placed at I would see all the luminous points which should be within the atmosphere, and in a curve IP like TP , in the line IK which would be horizontal from the point I , as TK is from the point T .

But moreover if we also imagine beyond I another curve IA within the atmosphere, and which is equal and similar to IP or TP , it follows that a ray of light as DA , which should meet the atmosphere in A , and make with KI prolonged an angle of $32'$, would traverse the atmosphere by the curve AI in touching the circumference of the circle of the earth TNI in I , and would pursue its way by the other curve IP , and would go out of the atmosphere at P , making with IK an angle of $32'$.

Now let us see the effect of the rays of the sun in the atmosphere.

All astronomers agree that when the centre of the sun is 18 degrees below the horizon, we see the beginning or the end of the twilight; and those who have observed the twilight in serene cold weather, take notice that its light is distinct enough toward the horizon to make an exact de-

termination of it; and consequently if we draw the line TF which makes with TL an angle of 18 degrees, this line TF will tend to the centre of the sun without having regard to the refraction; and if DA was a ray which came from the centre of the sun, and met without refraction TL in Q, the angle DQL would be 18 degrees.

But the beginning of the twilight which may appear to the eye placed at T, is produced by the first rays which come from the edge of the sun, and may meet the surface of the atmosphere in P upon the curve TP; and these rays would make with the horizon TL an angle as dQL of $18'$ minus the semi-diameter of the sun; for those which should make an angle greater than dQL , could not meet the arch of the atmosphere in the curve TP, and those which should make an angle less than dQL , as when the centre of the sun is nearer the horizon than 18 degrees, would meet arch of the atmosphere between Z and P, and then the light of the *crepusculum* would be already raised upon the horizon. Altho' we here consider the rays of the edge of the sun for the formation of the twilight, this does not hinder us from having determined its beginning when the centre of the sun is yet 18 degrees below the horizon.

But if dQ is the first ray of the sun which can meet the atmosphere in P, to make the eye at T perceive the beginning of the twilight, it must come out of its upper limb, which is remote from its centre in the mean distance of $16'$; for this reason the angle of 18° must be diminished by these $16'$; and as we have just demonstrated that it must be also diminished $32'$, which is the horizontal refraction; we must therefore subtract from 18° the two angles of $16'$ and $32'$, to have

the angle of $17^{\circ} 12'$, which is the only one we here consider, or want for our purpose.

Let us suppose therefore to avoid the confusion of the lines, that the ray dA , which meets the atmosphere in A where it enters, being prolonged to TL , at Q makes the angle dQL of 18° minus $16'$, but that in meeting the atmosphere at A , it turns aside and touches the surface of the earth in I , and afterwards pursues its way by the curve line IP similar to IA , which is also similar to TP ; and if thro' the point I we draw the tangent RIK to the arch of the earth TI , which meets TL in K , we shall have the angle IKL of $17^{\circ} 12'$, which must be equal to the angle TCI , or ACK , and CK will divide this angle into two equal parts; therefore the angle TCK , or ICK , will be of 8 degrees $36'$, which is the half of $17^{\circ} 12'$, when the first rays of the sun will meet the surface of the atmosphere in P , which is the point where we begin to see the twilight from the point T placed upon the surface of the earth.

* Now if we suppose that the arch of the atmosphere passes in K , then the ray as nK , which should make with LK an angle of $32'$, must be refracted in the atmosphere by the right line KT to go to T , which cannot be as we have said, because of the unequal density of the atmosphere; therefore the atmosphere must necessarily pass below K towards N .

But if thro' the point T we draw a line Tqf which makes with LT the angle KTf of $32'$, I say that the atmosphere cannot pass in q , for then the curvity of the ray $f q$ must be made above $f q T$ to go to T , where it must touch KT ,

* Fig. 2.

because this curvity must have its concavity turned toward the earth, and this refracted ray qT being bent, would divaricate from the direct ray sq by receding from the perpendicular Cq drawn to the surface of the atmosphere, whereas it ought to approach it; it will pass therefore above q toward K .

Let us now see by the means of the given angles, and by the magnitude of the radius or semi-diameter of the earth, which is known, what are the magnitudes of the lines NK and Nq .

We have in the triangle CTK rectangular in T , the angle TCK of $8^{\circ} 36'$, therefore its complement CKT will be $81^{\circ} 24'$; and we know the semi-diameter of the earth CT 3,269,297 toises, we shall find therefore CK of 3,306,520 toises, from which taking away CN or CT , there will remain NK of 37,223 toises.

Again, in the triangle CTq we have the angle TCq known as above to have $8^{\circ} 36'$; but the angle CqT is less than a right one by $36'$, since KTq is supposed to be $36'$, therefore CTq will be $89^{\circ} 24'$; and lastly, the angle CTq will be $82^{\circ} 0'$; and CT is the same as in the other; we shall find therefore Cq 3,301,244 toises, from which taking away the value of CN , there will remain for Nq 31,947 toises.

It therefore follows from hence, that the height of the atmosphere is less than 37,223 toises, and greater than Nq which is 31,947 toises; and if we take the mean which cannot be far from the truth, we shall have the height of the atmosphere NP , 34,585 toises.

M. Mariotte in his essay on the nature of the air, concludes the height of the atmosphere a little less than this by his principle of the condensation of the air in its different heights, and upon experiments:

riments : but these sorts of calculations can never be very just, because they are deduced from some gravity of the air near the earth ; and besides we cannot know by our experiments exactly to what height the elastic particles of the air can dilate themselves in the *æther*, nor the progression of their dilatation ; and it is a good deal to have come so near as he has done.

Kepler in his *Epitomy of Astronomy* determines the height of the atmosphere by the *crepuscula* according to the idea of the ancients, who considered only direct rays which met the atmosphere, after having touched the earth, without having regard to the refraction ; and he finds it by a calculation which he makes of 10 *German* miles, each of which is equal to about 3,800 of our toises ; and the height of the atmosphere would therefore be 38,000 toises, which is more than we have found it, and much more than he believed it ; for he reckoned its true height only at a little more than half a *German* mile, which would be almost 2,000 toises. There is a great probability that so considerable a difference made him seek the means of explaining the twilight, by employing thereupon some reflections within the atmosphere which he adds to the refraction ; and by a matter which he imagines to be about the sun, and to be illuminated by it ; and he insists strongly upon this thought, for he relates many reasons to support it, one of the principal of which is, the curved figure of the twilight which is observed in the cold and serene nights ; he also adds, that this apparent figure is a segment of a circle which terminates at the horizon ; but I am going to demonstrate that it is not a portion of a circle, but an hyperbola which is a little altered by the refraction, and that it is not necessary for the explaining this curved figure

figure of the *crepusculum*, to have recourse to a matter which encompasses the sun, and that it is only the atmosphere which must produce it, for such a matter would very much interrupt the celestial *phænomena*.

† Let there be as before, the vertical line CT, which passing thro' a point T of the surface of the earth, meets the surface of the atmosphere ZX at the point Z, and let TL be the horizon of the point T, which is perpendicular to the vertical CT; and let the surface of the atmosphere ZX be illuminated in P by the rays of the limb of the sun which is yet under the horizon; and as we suppose this point P raised above the horizon TL, there will appear a part of the arch of the twilight above the horizon. If we draw therefore the *radius* of the earth CP which meets its surface at N, and take the arch NI of $8^{\circ} 36'$, we shall have the point I, upon the circumference of the earth, where the rays of the upper limb of the sun, after being refracted in the atmosphere by entering into it, and in their way, will touch this circumference, and from thence turn themselves toward P, where they will meet the extremity of the atmosphere, as has been seen in the beginning of this memoir.

But as the same thing happens all about the earth; as to the ray IP in the atmosphere that surrounds it, if we draw the *radius* of the earth CI, and thro' the point P the line PV parallel to CI; this line PV will represent the circle of the surface of the atmosphere which is illuminated by the rays of the edge of the sun; it will therefore be this circle PV, which must represent the arch of the extremity of the twilight seen above the hori-

zon from the point T, of which the point P will be the most elevated part.

Let us now consider the circle PV for the base of a cone which has its *vertex* at T, where the eye is placed, the triangle TPV will be the triangle through the axis of this cone, which is perpendicular to its base, and its surface determines the extremity of the twilight with relation to the summit T; we need therefore only consider the figure of the section of this conic surface upon a plane.

When one is pretty far distant from a plane upon which there is a figure drawn, and cannot know the distance of the eye from the extremities of the figure, we always imagine that this figure is in a plane perpendicular to the principal ray which goes out of the eye to the figure, as if it had a circle drawn upon a plane, and this plane was very much inclined to the eye which should look upon the circle; and besides the plane not being visible, and this circle being very distant from the eye, we shall always judge that the figure is elliptic, for we conceive it in a plane perpendicular to the rays drawn from the eye to the figure.

It is the same here with the section of the cone TPV, of which there can only be a small part above the horizon TL; and as we suppose that the twilight is in a vertical plane perpendicular to the horizontal line TL, and to the triangle thro' the axis of the cone, we must imagine that its figure is upon this plane, and is an hyperbola; since the plane parallel to the plane where the section is, and which passes thro' the *vertex* T of the cone is within. The eye being placed at T, must therefore judge that the figure of the arch of the twilight is hyperbolical. But also the curvity of an hyperbolical arch being flatter on both sides its

vertex than the curve of an arch of a circle, will appear also more flatted toward the horizon, where the refraction will raise this arch much more than towards its *vertex*, which makes the difference still greater between the curvity of the twilight, and an arch of a circle.

It is seen by this explication, that in proportion as the upper part of the arch of the twilight rises toward the zenith Z, which is done in a very little time, since it must run over a quadrant of a circle whilst the sun rises only $8^{\circ} 36'$ toward the horizon, as from the point I toward N in *fig. 1.* that is from the beginning of the appearance of the twilight, and then the part of the horizon occupied by the twilight, is greater than a semi-circle, since it must be determined by the little circle Zy which will make with CZ an angle equal to CPV, which cuts the horizon in t beyond T, where its light hinders the eye at this point T from discerning the term of the arch of the twilight, which very readily disappears from the eye by the rays which come to it from the whole body of the sun.

It still remains for me to explain how *Kepler* has found the height of the atmosphere by the twilights to be 10 *German* miles according to the ancients, without having regard to the refraction.

† Let there be the surface of the earth IT, its centre C, and the horizon TK, from the point of its surface T, if we take the arch TI of its circumference of 18 degrees, and draw the tangent DI to the horizon TK at K, we shall have the point K where we ought to begin to see the twilight from the point T, for the point K must be

† Fig. 4.

that

that where the rays of the sun meet the atmosphere. It follows therefore, that if we draw CK, which must cut in two equal parts in N the arch TI, the angle TCI, or ICK will be 9 degrees, and the triangle ICK will be rectangular in I, and supposing the radius of the earth CI to be 904 *German* miles, he finds CK to be 914 miles, from which taking away CN of 904, there remains NK of 10 miles for the height of the atmosphere.

He adds, that this demonstration neglects all the causes except the sun, as the refraction, the reflection of the rays within the atmosphere, and the etherial matter which he imagines about the sun: thus he reasons from these causes without applying any calculation to them, to draw from them the height of the atmosphere of a little above half a mile, which he reckons to be its true value.

He says, that the matter of the atmosphere is homogeneous, and that its surface is as well terminated as that of the ocean. It is certain, that the refraction of the rays of the sun in entering into the atmosphere, must be considered as I have done; but he adds that those rays which do not meet the earth, and which in pursuing their way within the atmosphere, meet its surface in going out as if they had entered it, except some which are reflected within toward the earth, and which only produce a very faint light, and these last which are reflected by meeting again the surface of the atmosphere, go out of it also; except some which reflecting themselves again within the atmosphere, go to meet its surface in a place which may be seen from the earth, which produces in that place the appearance of the twilight. It is easy to judge that these few rays which should

touch the atmosphere after several reflections, and should be almost all gone out of the atmosphere, as he himself said, could not make impression upon the sight, and chiefly meeting only the surface of the air, which is a very rare body, altho' he supposes it homogeneous like water.

He afterwards runs out into a great length to prove by some calculation which he makes, the necessity of the matter which he has imagined about the sun, which must produce the curvity of the twilight; but all this is of no service, and is intirely useless for this phænomenon, as I have before demonstrated.

I have already explained why we cannot distinguish exactly the bounds of the twilight, when it is pretty much elevated above the horizon; and even when it is yet toward the horizon, it very often happens also that we cannot see it well terminated; for if the first rays of the sun which form it, as dI in the first figure, pass through thick clouds, or vapours, which are upon the surface of the earth toward I, they will be turned from one side to the other, and do not make in P a light strong enough to see there distinctly the term of the *crepusculum*, and this commonly happens. For towards the morning, where the sun beginning to enlighten successively the surface of the earth, a great many vapours arise; and towards evening, those which had risen in the day time, fall upon it again by the absence of the sun which forsakes them; it will not be the same thing if the air is very cold, and without clouds, it is also that time alone when the twilight is well terminated in its beginning, or in its end. We must also add to this, that toward the beginning of twilight, the eye which is at T, sees the particles of air, which are enlightened very near one another

other, which causes a much livelier appearance of light, than when it is raised above the horizon, where we only see these enlightened particles very much separated, which cannot strike the eye strong enough to distinguish the term of the *crepusculum*, and much less when the enlightened particles are toward the zenith Z.

In fine, if it is not granted that the beginning or end of the twilight appears when the sun is yet 18° below the horizon, and that it was at 17° or 19° , we must only increase or diminish the height of the atmosphere, as I have just found it about 2000 toises for each degree.

Nor do I pretend that the height of the atmosphere which I have supposed, must be the same over all the earth as toward the equator, or towards the poles; but that depends upon observations which might be made in those countries; and I am even persuaded that in the countries towards the poles, the height of the atmosphere is much greater than in these, or I believe greater than toward the equator; but towards the poles the observations of it may be very well determined, because of the great cold and clearness of the air, which reigns there in winter.

Here is an observation which will serve to confirm the height of the atmosphere as I have just determined it. In 1676 there appeared in some parts of *Italy*, a meteor, which was as bright as the full moon. M. *Montanari*, professor at *Bologna*, made some observations on it, and having compared them with those which had been made in other places, he determined the height of this meteor to be 15 mean leagues of *France*, which he printed in a small work, intitled *Fiamma volante*.

We cannot doubt but that all these fires or meteors are formed by sulphureous exhalations which come out of the earth, and becoming inflamed, weigh much less than the particles of air of which they occupy the place; but let them be ever so light, they are nevertheless heavier than the other which we consider as without any weight. For this reason they must raise themselves just upon the surface of the atmosphere, where they float as long as they last; thus the height of these fires must be the same with that of the atmosphere, and consequently the 15 leagues of height observed of this, which comes to 35,000 toises, confirms what I have found for the height of the atmosphere.

IV. *Of the figure of the earth, by M. Cassini.*

We shall not here undertake to relate the various opinions which have divided philosophers concerning the figure of the earth.

We cannot imagine any figure which they have not attributed to it; for not to mention those who believed it to be like a column, a drum, a cone, or a tree, the root of which was infinitely extended; some have judged it to be flat without admitting any other inequality in it, than what is caused by the mountains.

Others being afraid lest the waters of the sea should run out if they were not restrained by some bounds, gave it the figure of a concave hemisphere.

Lastly, others considering that the tops of the towers, and high mountains were perceived at a distance, while their bases were concealed below the horizon; that those who were in the most elevated places saw the sun rise earlier, and set later, than those who were in the lowest places; that the
shadow

shadow of the earth appeared in the eclipses of the moon to have a circular figure ; and that those who travelled from north to south, saw the southern stars rise above the horizon, whilst the northern stars were depressed, judged it to be spherical.

This opinion which was founded upon solid reasons, was almost generally received by those who undertook before us to determine the magnitude of the earth by geometrical operations. They made use of the measure of a small portion of its circumference, to conclude by that its whole extent, by supposing that all the degrees of the meridians of the earth were equal among themselves ; and that the lines perpendicular to the horizon, which pass through the zenith, and measure the degrees in the heavens, were directed towards the same point, which they judged to be the centre of the earth.

Several great geometers of our time have abandoned this hypothesis of the sphericity of the earth. Sir *Isaac Newton* in his *Philosophiæ Naturalis principia Mathematica*, having considered that the force which he calls centrifugal, and which results from the daily motion of the earth, must raise at the equator those parts which endeavour to recede from the axis of the earth ; judged that it must be depressed toward the poles, and he found according to his principles, that supposing the earth to be of an uniform matter, as dense at its circumference as towards its centre, the diameter of the equator ; must be to the diameter which passes through the poles as 692 to 689.

M. *Huygens*, in his discourse of the cause of gravity, having considered that at *Cayenne*, which is only 4 or 5 degrees distant from the equator, a pendulum which swings seconds is shorter there than at *Paris* by a line and $\frac{1}{4}$, from whence it
fol-

follows, that if we take pendulums of equal length, that of *Cayenne* makes the vibrations a little slower than that of *Paris*: judged that the cause of this phænomenon could be referred only to the daily motion of the earth, which being greater in each country, according as it approaches nearer the equinoctial line, must produce a proportionable effort to reject the bodies from the centre, and consequently take from them a certain part of their gravity. He adds, that this effort which results from the circular motion of the earth, must make a plummet, suspended to a cord, vary from the perpendicularity; and as the surface of all liquids is so disposed, that the line of suspension is perpendicular to it, because otherwise it might descend more, it follows, that the sea has the figure of a spheroid, and that the earth must have conformed itself to it, when it was collected by the effect of gravity. Upon these principles he advances as a paradox, that the earth is not perfectly spherical, but of the figure of a sphere flatted towards the poles, nearly such as an ellipsis would make by turning about its lesser axis; and he concludes, that the diameter of the equator exceeds the axis of the earth by $\frac{1}{578}$, whereas according to Sir *Isaac Newton*, this excess is but $\frac{1}{230}$ of the diameter of the equator.

But M. *Einsenschmid*, a celebrated mathematician of *Strasburg*, having examined the magnitude of the degree, which resulted from several dimensions, made under different parallels by various mathematicians, found that the magnitude of the degree of the earth, drawn from the measures of *Snellius* made in *Holland*, was smaller than that which M. *Picard* had determined by his observations made in *France*, which is more southward; that the magnitude of the degree, which
results

results from the measures of M. *Picard*, made in the neighbourhood of *Paris*, was smaller than that which F. *Riccioli* found at *Bolonia*, which is more southern than *Paris* ; and that this was yet smaller than the magnitude of the degree, which had been formerly determined by *Eratostenes*, between the city of *Alexandria* and that of *Syene*, which was under the tropic of *Cancer* ; this in quality of degrees, which increased in magnitude, as they approached the equinoctial line, made him judge that the earth was not spherical, but had the figure of a spheroid prolonged toward the poles, the meridians of which are represented by ellipses, and the equator and parallels by circles.

He determines upon this foundation the inequality of the degrees of the meridian of the circumference of the earth ; but he owns that it were to be wished, that some of these observations were again made near the pole, and the equator ; to determine more exactly and with more certainty the figure and size of the earth ; and that the meridian line, which ought to be drawn through the royal observatory on each side, to the confines of the kingdom, would be of very great importance for the deciding this question.

In his *Treatise of the figure of the earth*, he relates also the opinions of several authors, who, as well as he, have judged that the earth was prolonged towards the pole ; and he recites among others, Dr. *Burnet*, who considering that by the daily revolution of the earth, the mass of water receives a greater degree of velocity toward the equator, than towards the poles, where it describes smaller circles ; the parts of water which are most agitated, make an effort to remove from the centre of their motion, and cannot raise themselves, because of the air which surrounds them on
all

all sides and resists them ; so that they are obliged to flow on both sides to put themselves *in equilibrio* ; for, adds he, the waters which find any obstacle, flow on the side where they find a passage, and where their motion is most free, so that by the diminution of the waters of the sea, which are toward the equator, the globe of water is a little prolonged towards the poles, and the crust of earth which is formed upon it, must take the same figure.

In this diversity of opinions concerning the figure of the earth, we have thought it necessary to examine what that is which results from the observations which we have made in the southern part of *France*, compared with those that M. *Picard* had made in more northern places.

M. *Picard*'s measure of the earth extends from the parallel of *Amiens*, which is $49^{\circ} 54' 46''$ to the parallel of *Malvoisine*, which is $48^{\circ} 31' 48''$, and in this space, which is about 1 degree and $\frac{1}{3}$, the magnitude of the degree of a meridian amounts to 57060 toises.

Our measures begin at the royal observatory of *Paris*, which is under the parallel of $48^{\circ} 50' 10''$, and end at *Collioure*, which is toward the southern extremity of *France*, under the parallel of $42^{\circ} 31' 13''$. In this extent, which is $6^{\circ} 18' 57''$, we have found the magnitude of each degree one with another 57100 toises. Thus if we suppose M. *Picard*'s observations and ours to be exact in all their circumstances, the result is that the degrees, which are toward the north, are less than those which are toward the south; and that consequently the figure of a meridian of the earth, must be such that the degrees should encrease the more they approach the equator, and diminish on the contrary in going toward the poles ; which is the property

of an ellipsis, the great diameter of which represents the axis of the earth, and the lesser diameter that of the equator, as will be demonstrated hereafter.

This ellipsis turning about its great axis, forms by its revolution a spheroid, of which the poles are at the extremities of the great axis, and the equator and parallels are represented by circles. This figure is what we attribute to the earth, and we shall give according to this hypothesis, a very simple method to divide the ellipses, which represent the meridians of the earth divided into degrees and minutes, and determine the inequality of these degrees, which are terminated in the heavens by perpendiculars to the horizon, which pass through the zenith, and cut all of them the axis of the earth in different points. Let * BDCR be an ellipsis which represents a meridian of the earth, of which let the poles B and C be at the extremity of the great axis BC, and let the foci E and F be taken at discretion.

We would divide this ellipsis into degrees, that is, find several points H, I, V, such, that the distance from the pole to the zenith of each of these points be a certain number of given degrees, such as we please.

Let there be drawn from one of the foci of the ellipsis E, the line ET, which makes, with the axis BC, an angle BET, equal to the distance given from the pole to the zenith. Let there be taken with a pair of compasses, a space equal to the axis BC; and from the other focus F, as a centre, let there be described at this interval, an arch of a circle, which cuts in T the line ET; I

* Plate VI. Fig. 5.

say, that the line FT, drawn from the point T to the focus F, will cut the ellipsis at the point H, which is such, that the distance from the pole to the zenith of this place, will be of the number of degrees given.

Demonstration.

From the point H let there be raised HZ, perpendicular to the ellipsis, which passes through the zenith z, and being prolonged on the inside, meets the axis of the earth in O, and divides by the property of the ellipsis, the angle EHF in two equal parts. Let there be also drawn from the point H, HP parallel to the axis BC, and directed to the pole P, which we suppose at an infinite distance. The angle PHZ or POZ, measures the distance from the pole to the zenith of an inhabitant, who should be upon the earth at the point H.

By the construction, FT is equal to the axis BC; but BC by the property of the ellipsis, is equal to EH, *plus* HF; taking away the common FH, we shall have EH equal to HT. The angles ETH, TEH, will therefore be equal, and consequently each half of the external angle EHF; but the angle EHO is also equal to half the angle EHF; the angles TEH, EHO, will therefore be equal between themselves, and consequently the lines ET, HO, will be parallel between themselves, and the angle POZ, which measures the distance from the pole to the zenith, from the point H, will be equal to the angle BET, which, by the construction, was made equal to the distance given from the pole to the zenith.

Q. E. D.

Now

Now if we suppose the proportion of the great diameter of the ellipsis BC, to the distance EF between the *foci*, such as we please, we may determine by calculation all the points of the ellipsis as H, which terminate the degrees, making as FT or BC is to EF; so is the *sine* of the angle PET, the given distance from the pole to the zenith, to the sine of the angle ETF or TEH, the value of which will consequently be known. This angle TEH being added to the angle PET, the given distance from the pole to the zenith, from the point H, gives the value of the angle BEH; that the line drawn from the focus to the sought point H, makes with the axis of the ellipsis.

Now in the triangle EHF, of which the side EF is known, as well as the angle EHF, which is double of the angle TEH, and the angle FEH supplement of the angle BEH; we shall have the value of the side EH known in parts of the axis BC.

By the same method we shall find the angles BEI, BEV, &c. and the value of the lines EI, EV, for the distance from the pole to the zenith, of all the degrees of the circumference of the earth; and in the rectilinear triangles HEI, IEV, of which the sides HE, EI, EV are known as well as the angles contained between the sides HEI, IEV, which are the difference between the angles BEH, BEI, BEV determined here above, we shall know the value of the chords HI, IV, contained between each degree.

We shall therefore have the exact proportion of the chords of each degree of the circumference of the earth in the elliptical hypothesis. And as the proportion of these cords between themselves is not sensibly different from the propor-

tion between the arches of the ellipses which they subtend, we shall have at the same time the proportion between the degrees of the circumference of the earth at any distance from the pole, supposing the excentricity of the earth to be in a certain quantity.

For a greater exactness we might calculate the proportion between the chords of the halves and quarters of a degree of the circumference of the earth, that the difference which might be between the proportion of the arches and that of the chords, was less sensible ; but if we consider that the excess of the arch of a degree upon the chord which subtends it, is only about 4 feet ; it is easy to judge, that the difference between the proportion of the chords of each degree, and that of the arches of the ellipses which they subtend, is absolutely insensible ; add to this, that the measures which we have used for determining the magnitude of the earth, have been made according to right lines, and not according to the curvity of the circumference of the earth.

Having applied the method just explained, to the figure of the earth, which we at first supposed to be like the orb of the moon in the elliptical hypothesis, and of which the distance between the *foci*, is, according to the modern astronomers, about $\frac{1}{23}$ of the great diameter ; we have found that according to this hypothesis, the degrees increase in magnitude, in receding from the pole and approaching to the equator, agreeable to our observations, but that this augmentation from one degree to another, at the distance from the pole of 40 degrees, was but two toises and 4 feet, which is too little to represent the inequality of the degrees,

degrees, which results from the comparison of our observations with that of M. *Picard*'s.

We have therefore been obliged to suppose the excentricity of the earth greater, and we have found, that by establishing the distance between the foci of the ellipsis, which represents a meridian of the earth, double to that which is attributed to the orb of the moon; so that this distance may be to the great diameter of the earth, as 8,724 to 100,000, that is pretty near as 1 to 11. This ellipsis perfectly represents the figure of a meridian of the earth, such as results from our observations compared to those of M. *Picard*.

We find for example, that the degree contained between the parallels of 49 and 50 degrees, being 57,060 toises, according as it has been determined in the measure of the earth; that which is between the parallels of 50 and 51 degrees, is 57,071 toises, and 2 feet, greater than the preceding by 11 toises, 2 feet, and that the sum of six degrees contained between the parallels of the places which we have determined the distance of, is 342,600 toises, which gives the magnitude of these degrees, one with another, 57,100 toises, as we have observed.

We also find, that according to the hypothesis of the elliptic earth, the smallest inequality from one degree to another, is toward the poles, and the equator where it is only two or three feet. This inequality in the degrees increases afterwards on both sides to the parallel of 45 degrees where it is the greatest that is possible, and which we have calculated to be about $11 \frac{1}{2}$ toises.

It follows from hence, that the most convenient places to know if there be any inequality in
the

the degrees of a meridian of the earth, are contained between the parallels of 40 and 50 degrees, which are exactly those which we have determined by our observations. This inequality in the degrees must be observed toward the parallel of 45 degrees, even tho' we should suppose the earth to be depressed toward the poles; with the difference that the degrees diminish in magnitude in approaching the equator, which is contrary to our observations.

By continuing this inquiry, we find the magnitude of a degree of a meridian toward the pole to be 56,785 toises and $\frac{1}{2}$, and that of a degree near the equator 57,440 toises, so that from the greatest to the least degree of the earth, there is 655 toises difference.

Taking the sum of all the degrees of a meridian, we shall have its circumference of 20,560,295 toises, only 4,295 toises greater than the circumference of the earth would be supposing it spherical, when the magnitude of the degree is 57,100 toises.

With regard to the axis of the earth, we shall find it 6,557,040 toises greater than in the spherical hypothesis by 13,856 toises, or about seven of our leagues. We shall have also the distance between the two *foci* of the earth 286,018 toises, or 443 leagues; and in the rectangular triangle DAE, of which the side AE, the half of the interval between the two *foci*, is known as well as the hypotenuse ED, which by the property of ellipses, is equal to half the great diameter BC, we shall find AD to be 3,266,020 toises, of which the double DR, the diameter of the equator will be 6,532,040 less than the axis BC, by 25,000 toises, or 12 or 13 of our leagues.

The difference between the axis of the earth, and the diameter of the equator, will therefore be the $\frac{1}{262}$ of this diameter, greater by half than what M. *Huygens* has determined, and pretty near the same with Sir *Isaac Newton's*, but contrary ways.

The diameter of the equator being known, we shall have its circumference of 20,521,006 toises, which gives the magnitude of the degrees of the equator which in this hypothesis are equal between themselves, of 57,003 toises almost the same with that of the meridian which is 36 degrees distance from the pole.

Taking the difference between the circumference of a meridian which we have found to be 20,560,295 toises, and that of the equator which is 20,521,006 toises, we shall have 39,289 toises, or about 20 leagues, by which the circuit of the earth about one of these meridians, exceeds its circuit about the equinoctial.

According to these principles we might determine in toises, or leagues, the diameter and circumference of each parallel; for in the rectangular triangle ELH, the angle LEH, and the hypotenuse EH, being known, we shall find the value of the side LH semi-diameter of the parallel which passes thro' the point H, the latitude of which is known.

The magnitude of the meridians and parallels of the earth being thus determined with regard to our observations, they may be used in the construction of terrestrial globes, and geographical maps.

To facilitate the description thereof, we have drawn up a table, in which is marked in toises,
and

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and feet, the magnitude of all the degrees of the
meridians from the poles to the equator.

This table will serve to compare not only
the observations which have already been made
at different distances from the pole to deter-
mine the magnitude of the earth; but also those
which may hereafter be made with the same design
under several other parallels.

A TABLE of the degrees of the meridians of the earth.

Height of the pole.	Dist. from the pole to the zenith	Degrees of a meridian.	Height of the pole.	Dist. from the pole to the zenith	Degrees of a meridian.	Height of the pole.	Dist. from the pole to the zenith	Degrees of a meridian.
<i>D.</i>	<i>D.</i>	<i>Toises. Feet.</i>			<i>Toises. Feet.</i>			<i>Toises. Feet.</i>
90	0	56785 3	60	30	56952 5	30	60	57280 1
89	1	56785 5	59	31	56962 5	29	61	57289 5
88	2	56786 4	58	32	56973 1	28	62	57299 2
87	3	56787 5	57	33	56983 3	27	63	57308 4
86	4	56789 3	56	34	56994 0	26	64	57317 5
85	5	56791 3	55	35	57004 5	25	65	57326 3
84	6	56793 5	54	36	57015 4	24	66	57335 1
83	7	56796 3	53	37	57026 3	23	67	57343 2
82	8	56799 4	52	38	57037 4	22	68	57351 2
81	9	56803 1	51	39	57048 5	21	69	57359 0
80	10	56807 0	50	40	57060 0	20	70	57366 2
79	11	56811 2	49	41	57071 2	19	71	57373 2
78	12	56815 5	48	42	57082 4	18	72	57380 1
77	13	56820 5	47	43	57094 0	17	73	57386 4
76	14	56826 1	46	44	57105 3	16	74	57392 5
75	15	56831 4	45	45	57117 0	15	75	57398 3
74	16	56837 5	44	46	57128 2	14	76	57404 0
73	17	56844 1	43	47	57139 4	13	77	57409 0
72	18	56850 5	42	48	57151 1	12	78	57413 4
71	19	56857 5	41	49	57162 2	11	79	57418 0
70	20	56865 0	40	50	57173 4	10	80	57422 0
69	21	56872 4	39	51	57184 5	9	81	57425 3
68	22	56880 3	38	52	57195 5	8	82	57428 4
67	23	56888 4	37	53	57206 5	7	83	57431 3
66	24	56897 1	36	54	57217 5	6	84	57433 5
65	25	56905 5	35	55	57228 3	5	85	57435 5
64	26	56914 5	34	56	57239 1	4	86	57437 3
63	27	56924 0	33	57	57249 4	3	87	57438 4
62	28	56933 4	32	58	57260 0	2	88	57439 3
61	29	56943 0	31	59	57270 1	1	89	57440 0
60	30		30	60		0	90	

V. *Experiments and reflections upon the prodigious ductility of several bodies, by M. de Reaumur; translated by Mr. Chambers.*

Art has its wonders as well as nature, and the reason why we do not perceive them is, that they are always before our eyes. It is enough for us to supply our wants, or our luxury, without enquiring into the artifice we are beholden to for it.——Of this we have an instance in the wier-drawer's art: the person that wears lace or embroidery, seldom considers the formation of those wonderful threads, but a few philosophers have examined them, and have drawn excellent proofs from them of the prodigious divisibility of matter which they might have carried still further, if they had been acquainted with the full effect of the wier-drawer's art. They have even attempted to account for this extreme ductility of metals, though one of the greatest secrets in nature, as depending on that very obscure property hardness, and having its obscure difficulties besides.

As to the philosophy of ductility, we have little to offer more than has already been done, but as to the management and application of it by art, we are in a condition to discover several things, accordingly, having had occasion to make several experiments on this head; we shall here produce them, and examine the effects of ductility in very different bodies. It will afford no disagreeable spectacle to see collected, as into one point of view, all that is remarkable on a subject wherein

wherein art and nature seem to strive which shall furnish most curiosities.

Ductile bodies are those, which when beat, pressed, or drawn, stretch without breaking one way, almost what they loose in another: such are metals, which, by hammering, gain in length and breadth, what they loose in thickness, or by being drawn thro' a wier-drawer's iron, become longer in proportion, as their thickness is less; we have also another kind of bodies, which tho' not malleable like metals, may yet be accounted ductile, as glue, gums, resins, and all bodies which being softened by water, fire, or any other dissolvent, will draw out into threads.

—— Hence ductile bodies may be divided into 2 classes, the first whereof comprehends those which are hard and malleable, of which we shall treat in the first place; the second consists of the soft bodies, which tho' not malleable, are capable of being drawn out.

The common method of extending the first kind is, by beating them with a hammer: thus it is the artificers in gold, silver, copper, and pewter, reduce masses of those metals into what figure they please; but tho' this kind of manufacture deserves more attention than is commonly bestowed on it, we shall not dwell thereon, our design being only to consider ductile bodies with regard to the great extension they are capable off.

The gold beaters, by bare means of a hammer, reduce that metal into plates inconceivably thin: thus it is they prepare those leaves commonly used in gilding, which all come from a thick ingot, gradually made thinner and thinner, till at length the leaves become light enough to be blown away by the slenderest puff: to learn in some surer way, than by the accounts of the

workmen, to which *Robault* confided, how far gold may actually be stretched in this method, I took a quantity of the thinnest leaves, such as those in their common books, and after measuring them carefully, weighed them in a fine ballance, by which means I found, that a grain of gold was here beaten into an extent of 36 square inches $\frac{1}{2}$, and 24 square lines, on which footing, an ounce of gold, which, in a cubic form would only have measured 5 lines $\frac{1}{3}$, either in breadth, length, or depth, and which would only cover a surface of about 27 square lines, when stretched by the gold-beater, will cover upwards of 146 square feet $\frac{1}{2}$, a degree of extension greater by almost $\frac{1}{2}$, than they were able to give leaf-gold 90 years ago. It was looked on with surprize in father *Mersenne's* time, that an ounce of gold might be made into 1600 leaves, which altogether, only covered 105 square feet.——It would be tedious here to explain how the art arrived at its present perfection. We shall not so much as mention the ingenuity of the operators, who, from bullocks guts have procured that delicate parchment without which gold could not be reduced into leaves so thin.

After all, how considerable soever the extension of gold may be in the leaf, it will appear but a small matter, when compared with that which the gold wier-drawers give it. There are some leaves of beaten gold, which in certain places are not $\frac{1}{30000}$ of a line thick; but $\frac{1}{30000}$ of a line is a considerable thickness, when compared with the gold which covers the silver wier, commonly spun upon silk.

To conceive the extent to which gold is then stretched, and how prodigiously thin it must be, it will be necessary to have a general idea of the gold-

gold-beater's art.—What we call gold wier, every body knows is only silver wier gilt, and is drawn from a thick bar of silver; they take such bar, weighing about 30*lb.* and rounding it into the form of a cylinder or roller, about 15 lines in diameter, and 22 inches long; they gild it with leaves prepared by the gold-beaters, the leaves however employed for this purpose are thicker than those intended for common gilding, and they frequently apply several, one over another, but tho' the layer of gold be here thicker than in other gildings, yet is it very thin, as may easily be inferred from the quantity of gold therein. To gild these 30*lb.* of silver, they never use above six ounces of gold, which is enough even to make a super-gilding; but the common proportion is only 2 ounces; and they frequently scarce allow one, where the wier is to be but slightly gilt, as in the common gold wier of *Lyons*. Upon the whole, the layer of gold, which covers the ingot, is never above $\frac{1}{15}$ of a line thick, frequently only a 30th or 45th, and sometimes barely a 90th part.

Yet how much thinner must this thin layer of gold be still brought, and how many times divided and subdivided! The ingot itself cover'd with it, must be drawn to a great degree of fineness, equal, or even superior to that of a hair; this is done by passing it successively thro' several holes, each finer than the other, and in proportion as its diameter is reduced by the slenderness of the hole, its length is increased, and consequently its surface augmented, yet the gold, which covers the silver ingot, still continues to cover it, how prodigiously soever extended, nor ever leaves the smallest point bare. Now how many divisions must it have undergone, when the ingot is reduced into

a thread, whose diameter is 9000 times smaller than that of the ingot.

To give a further idea of the prodigious ductility of gold, I weighed $\frac{1}{2}$ a drachm of the finest wier, and measuring it with care, found it 202 feet, consequently the ounce of wier was equal to 3232 feet, and the pound, or 12 ounces, to 38784; the ingot therefore, which weighed 30lb. and was only 22 inches long, had now arrived at the length of 1163520 feet; so that reducing the feet into fathoms, and taking the league of 2000 fathoms, the 22 inches length will be found extended into 96 leagues and 196 fathoms, an extension vastly superior to what father *Mersenne* and *Furetier* mention; the latter of those gentlemen observes after the former, that $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce of wier will reach 100 fathoms and more; this more is very considerable, since 100 fathoms, for $\frac{1}{2}$ an ounce, would only be 1200 feet for an ounce, whereas we have found it 3232 feet. *Robault* also comes far behind us in the extension of gold.

But the ingot, tho' reduced into so slender a wier, is not left here, but remains to be lengthened still further; the greater part of the gold wier is spun upon silk, and before spinning must be flattened, by passing it between 2 wheels of polished steel; and these wheels in thus flattening it, draw it out $\frac{1}{7}$ more, so that the ingot is now arrived at 111 leagues long; these leaves of flattened wire are very slender, their breadth is only about $\frac{1}{8}$ of a line, from whence it follows, that their thickness is only $\frac{1}{256}$ of a line, as appears by an easy calculus. For the weight of a cubic foot of gold, and a cubic foot of silver, being known by accurate experiments; we suppose here that the cubic foot of gold weighs 21220 ounces, and the cubic foot of silver

silver 11523, we shall not stand to shew the method whereby it appears that these silver laminæ are only $\frac{1}{256}$ of a line thick : but instead thereof turn our eyes upon the extream thinness of the leaf gold which covers them ; this will appear truly amazing, if we consider the small quantity of gold applied on the silver ingot ; suppose 2 ounces, as we have shewn that less is often us'd by calculation, it will appear, that the surface cover'd by these two ounces of gold, is 2380 square feet, or that an ounce of gold covers 1190 square feet, whereas the gold beaters can only extend it to 146 square feet.

Now how prodigiously thin must the gold thus extended be, by the preceding calculus, we shall find its thickness only $\frac{1}{175000}$ of a line, and yet to have the gold which covers the silver, this $\frac{1}{175000}$, the gold must be supposed equally thick in every part, which yet is contrary to all experience, for how carefully soever the leaf gold be beat, 'tis impossible not to leave inequalities in it, 'tis evident from their greater and less transparency, that they are at least twice as thick in some places than in others, and consequently in gilding the ingot, they will cover it very unequally, leaving the gold thicker by half in certain places than in others ; now if we enquire, the thickness of the gold in those parts where it is thinnest, it will be only found equal to the 262,500th part of a line.

Yet, is not this the utmost bound to which the ductility of gold may be carried ; in lieu of 2 ounces, 1 need only have been used, in which case, the gold which covers the silver wire, would only have been in some places the 525,000th part of a line ; but what is more, this silver-wire for all its thinness might be made thinner by $\frac{1}{2}$.

yet still remain gilt. All required hereto, is to squeeze it closer between the wheels, till the proposed extension be effected, and the wire measure $\frac{1}{4}$ th of a line broad; here therefore the gold which covers them will be reduced to the 1,000,000th part of a line thick, in which case, their thickness makes a less part of a line, than a line does of 1,200 fathoms.

It may perhaps be surmized, that the gold is much thicker than appears by this calculus, since it may be divided into little separate grains, yet placed so near each other, as to give its colour to the silver. In fine, it is very natural to suppose, that the gold which covered the flattened wire does not form a continued leaf; but experience shews the contrary; for upon dissolving some of the gilt threads in aqua fortis, how small or thin soever they may be when the menstruum has had its effect, they will be found turned into so many small hollow tubes, the aqua fortis having eat out the silver, but left the gold intire; whence it appears, that the gold which covered the silver, forms one continued body; and consequently we are able by art to divide a piece of gold, a line thick, into a million different leaves.

The art of extending soft bodies has not yet been carried near so far. The only body of this kind that we can stretch any thing considerably, is glass; and it will appear extreamly surprising that a substance, which of all others, is the most brittle, and stubborn, should be laid down as the first among soft ductile ones; 'tis known indeed, that when fused by the fire, the workman can fashion it like soft wax; but what is most remarkable, and nearest concerns our present subject is, that it may be drawn out into threads inconceivably slender, a common spinner does not form her threads

threads of flax or hemp with half so much facility, as a glass-man will make threads of this brittle matter.

Few people but have seen a sort of plumes used in the toppings of childrens caps, and in other ornaments, which 'tis well known, are no other than bunches of glass threads, tho' finer than any hairs, and bending like them, by the smallest breath of wind. A manufacture so very extraordinary, would doubtless bear a very high price, were it not so very simple, and easy to be performed; it employs 2 persons at the same time, but scarce requires any skill or dexterity in either of them.

The 1st holds one end of a piece of glass over the flame of a lamp, and when it is sufficiently softened, the other applying one end of a glass hook thereto, draws it away again without separating it from the rest of the mass, then fitting this hook upon the circumference of a vertical wheel, about 2 feet $\frac{1}{2}$ in diameter, not unlike a common spinning wheel, nothing remains but to turn it about; for in proportion as it turns, it draws part of the melted glass towards it, which part still adhering to those before and after them, form a thread which winds round the rim of the wheel; each revolution lays on a new round of thread, till at length the circumference of the wheel is covered as it were with a skain of glass thread; the melted mass diminishing apace, and winds out like a clue on the rim of a wheel; the parts as they recede from the lamp, grow cool, and stick faster to each other; the rest which are nearer the fire remaining loose: and thus continually obeying the attraction of the former. Nor is the workman obliged to turn his wheel slowly, for fear of breaking the thread; he may turn as

swift, and dispatch his work as fast as he pleases, without the thread breaking at all the oftener.

The threads thus formed, are not uniformly round, but their circumference is a very flat oval, being twice or thrice broader than thick; some of them are extremely fine, scarce short of the thread of a silk worm; and accordingly these are flexible to a surprising degree. One may knot the 2 ends of such a thread, and draw them till the hole in the middle be scarce $\frac{1}{4}$ th of a line in diameter e'er it will break.

How stiff soever, and inflexible glass appears in the lump, it is not essentially so: if we had the art of drawing much finer threads, they would be more flexible in proportion; whence it may be concluded, that if we could draw threads as slender as those wherein the spiders lay their eggs, we might make glass threads proper to be wove in stuffs; and that if glass be not malleable, it may however (if I may use the term) be texable. I have tried several ways for making glass threads vastly finer than is commonly done, but have not been able to get them to the necessary length. The danger is in giving too great a degree of fusion to a matter so very thin, as that which must here be used, not to mention the difficulty of drawing it gently enough, and in an equable manner. The method which succeeded the best is, that which follows; I took a glass thread seven or eight inches long, and suspending it in the air by one end, I loaded the other end with a piece of wax hardly weighing a tenth part of a grain, which yet was enough to draw the glass thread downwards. Near the thread thus suspended, I drew a little taper; upon the arrival whereof, at a certain degree of nearness, I could perceive the little weight descend in jerks:
by

by this means I frequently stretched a piece of thread $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch long, to the extent of nine or ten inches, but have rarely been able to go much further, by reason the slightest breath of wind would blow the flame of the taper so near the thread, as to melt and break it; it was not easy to make a sufficient number of threads in this manner, whereof to compose one pretty thick one; but by the experiment I learned, that one may make threads of glass finer than those of any silk-worm. Those I drew in this manner seemed almost as fine as a spider's threads. I would willingly have learned to what degree they were flexible, for they appeared to be prodigiously so; but they were too fine, and short, and their number too small for this purpose.

Thus much is certain, that the matter whereof, even the spiders and silk-worms spin their threads, is brittle in the mass, like all dry gums, as I have tried, by letting it dry; and it may be added, that tho' the threads spun hereof were less flexible than they are, they might nevertheless be woven, whence it seems to follow, that we only want the art of extending the glass, to be able to work it into cloth.—In effect, if the glass threads were fine enough to give them the flexibility necessary for weaving, they would naturally be strong enough to prove their strength. I hung several weights to the finest glass threads, which the workmen make, and found that one single thread would sustain 15 drachms, or near 2 ounces without breaking; 'tis true these threads were 3 or 4 times broader than a thread of a silk-worm, but they did not seem any thicker, whence it seems to follow, that they would be considerably stronger than the threads of a silk-worm, even though

they were equally slender, since one of the strongest threads of silk will only sustain 2 drachms $\frac{1}{2}$, whose strength of consequence is only $\frac{1}{6}$ of that of a glass thread. A disproportion much greater than that between their solid contents. Accordingly picking a large bunch of the finest of these threads, and dividing them into several portions, and twisting these together as barbers plait tresses of hair, we find them very strong, not but several other threads will break in the plaiting; and after all, there is no likelyhood that any great advantage will ever be procur'd from glass threads.

Gums, resins and wax, are also ductile soft bodies, but none of them are much considered by artificers in that capacity; 'tis true the wax-chandler's draw their torches or tapers through holes, like those of a wire-drawer, but this is not to extend, but to make them round and smooth.

If we be defective in the management of the class of ductile soft bodies, 'tis in some measure compensated by that artifice found in several animals, for extending it beyond all imagination; so that we have nothing to do but employ the threads prepared for us. 'Tis obvious we here speak of the silk-worm's threads which are formed of a viscous matter issuing from the body of the insect, which arrives at a consistence much as glass threads become hard, by receding from the lamp, tho' from a different cause, as shall be shewn hereafter, nor shall our enquiry into the extension of ductile soft bodies, terminate in the silk of worms. These animals which yield the most profit, rarely afford us the most curiosity, but nature on the contrary, seems to have bestowed most art in the contrivance of those which are troublesome to us, and for which we even have an aversion; thus spiders, those mischievous insects, which probably

bably would not spin at all, unless to incommode us, as we have already shewn, in an enquiry into the produce of their silk, in the memoirs for the year 1710, are incomparably better fitted than silk-worms, to shew how far nature can go in extending a viscid juice.——In the discourse already cited, we only spoke occasionally of the extrem fineness of their threads, to prevent digressing too far from the principal point, we shall now examine a little nearer, and inspect that admirable mechanism whereby they are formed.

The illustrious *Malpighi* in his anatomy of the silk-worm, describes the parts from whence their silk is derived, and we shall find another *apparat* in the body of spiders——near the spiders tail there are six teats or *papillæ* *, the end of each whereof is a spinning instrument, through which the threads are drawn; these moulds or spinning instruments are inconceivably small, in a compass less than a pin's head. There are enough of them to give rise to a surprising multitude of threads, as may be easily perceived by their effects; taking a large garden spider ready to lay its eggs, and applying a finger on one of its *papillæ*, as we withdraw the finger, a surprising quantity of separate threads will come after it, as shewn by KAMN, &c. I have endeavoured to learn their number by using a good microscope, and have frequently told upwards of 70 or 80, but could easily perceive that they were infinitely more, tho' they all arose from a small part of the *papillæ*. In effect, if I were to say that the end of each *papilla* furnishes a thousand threads, the number would perhaps be thought excessive, and it appears to me much too small to express the number of these threads, as every

* Plate VI. Fig. 9.

body may be convinced, by examining a *papilla* of a chamber-spider with a microscope. In this contemptible insect we find a beautiful structure; the end of the *papilla* is divided into a multitude of smaller eminences, much like flies or butterflies eyes, and each eminence doubtless serves to make a different thread, or the several dents between the eminences may perhaps be pierced, and thus give passage to so many threads, the little eminences only serving to keep the threads from mixing together; these eminences are not so sensible as the *papillæ* of garden spiders, but in lieu thereof we find a forest of little hairs, which may probably answer the same purposes—be this as it will, it appears incontestable, that from each *papilla* of a spider, there may arise threads from above a thousand different places, and consequently the animal having 6 *papillæ*, may give passage to 6000 threads; nor is the artifice of nature barely seen in piercing such immensely small holes, but the threads are already formed when they arrive at the *papillæ*, each of them having its little canal or vagina apart; in effect, we find them formed and separate from each other at a great distance from the *papillæ*, and to explain the whole mechanism, we must go back as far as the source of the juice they are composed of.

In insects so small and soft such delicate parts are hardly distinguishable without a little attention, but boiling the animal, or drying it, or leaving it a few hours in spirit of wine, renders all the essential parts visible without a microscope. Near the rise of the belly, as at DD *, we find two little soft bodies, which are the first sources of the silk in figure and transparency; they resemble glass drops, whence for the conveniency of expression,

* Fig. 7.

we shall not scruple to call them drops * ; the point of each drop goes winding as in R, and forms a multitude of bends towards the *papillæ*. From the base of the drop proceeds another branch much bigger than the former, as S, which making also a greater number of folds, forms several knots, and advances like the other towards the hind part of the spider.

I have sometimes unfolded this last branch till it were 9 or 10 inches long, tho' only a part of it were then unfolded. The drop and branches which arise from them, contain the matter whereof silk is to be formed ; but this matter is yet soft, and unless the spider have been dried, will hardly draw out into long threads. The body of the drop may be considered as a reservoir, and the 2 branches as canals proceeding from them. If the spider be not over-boiled, the branches will be visibly seen invested with a membrane which prevents the transparency of the liquor from appearing, but by rubbing the canal gently, this membrane comes off a little further ; behind, there are 2 smaller drops which send forth one more branch from their point, so that on each side the spider there are 3 drops which send forth their liquor, by 3 canals, to the proper reservoirs from whence it is immediately supplied for the formation of silk.

On each side the spider, as at EE †, there are three other bodies, which may be considered as the ultimate reservoirs wherein the liquor is gathered ; these we call the grand reservoirs || ; they are much bigger than the drops, and the three which are on the same side are ranged in such manner by each other, that they only seem

* Fig. 10. † Fig. 7. || Fig. 11.

to form a single body, they are very different in figure, and yet have this in common, that each of them makes 6 or 7 bends, and are pretty equably thick throughout, tho' one of their extremities is bigger than the other, the larger end as VVV, is next the head of the insect, and the smaller TTT, next the *anus*; these latter terminate in a point, and almost meet each other, like the three middle fingers of the hand. From the three points of these reservoirs proceed the threads, or at least the chief parts of the threads, which issue at the three *papillæ*, each reservoir being destined to supply one *papilla*; this is not difficult to perceive, for not only the point of each of these reservoirs is seen terminating in a thread; but if the adjacent parts be dexterously managed, we perceive a multitude of threads which proceed from these bodies, and may be traced to the *papillæ*.

In fine, at the origin of the *papillæ* we discover several fleshy tubes, and have reason to imagine, that there are as many *papillæ*. If the membrane or pellicle which seems to cover these tubes be removed, we find them full on the inside, with threads all distinct from each other, and which of consequence, under one common cover, had each of them their particular one.

'Tis true, upon tracing these threads we find several of them which come further off than the points of the grand reservoirs, some of them seem to come from the middle, others a little lower, and others a little higher; so that the whole multitude of threads collected near the *papillæ* of the spider do not all seem to arise from the points of the reservoirs; 'tis more probable that some arise from the several angles, or perhaps from other parts

parts of the reservoirs. All we can affirm for certain is, that these bodies seem to have one common tegument, and that there are a multitude of threads which follow all their windings.

As to the manner wherein this juice is gathered in the drops, and its passage thence into the grand reservoirs, the eye can give us no information. *Malpighi*, as clear sighted as he was, contented himself with describing the vessel wherein the liquor of his silk-worm is collected, without either explaining the manner wherein it comes thither, or its passage out again. What then can be expected from us, in an insect much smaller than the silk-worm, and which contains 6 or 7 thousand times more parts? 'Twill be enough for us to make some reflections on the prodigious ductility of the matter whereof their threads are composed, and the immense fineness of the holes, thro' which they pass, and the tubes they are moulded in.

We have observed, that from the end of each *papilla* there may issue upwards of a thousand threads, yet this end of a papilla is no broader than a pin's head, and the holes are of necessity separated from each other by intervals which must be greater by much than the holes themselves; and this even in the largest spiders: for if we consider the young ones produced by these, we shall find them to spin threads the moment they quit their nest; these threads 'tis true are hardly to be perceived; but the webs formed of them are sufficiently visible, being frequently as thick and as close as that of a chamber-spider; and this by reason 4 or 5 hundred young spiders concur to the same work. How small now must the holes be thro' which these threads are drawn? The imagination

can hardly reach the smallness of one of these papillæ. The whole spider perhaps is scarce so big as a single papilla of one of the parent spiders, as may be easily shewn ; for every pregnant spider lays 4 or 5 hundred eggs, which are all inclosed in a ball ; and as soon as a young spider has broke thro' this ball, they begin to spin. How slender then must each of the threads be that issue from each papilla ! It were perhaps needless to shew, that nature can carry the ductility of this matter still further, otherwise it might easily be done ; for some spiders are so small at their birth, that there is no distinguishing them without a microscope. They are of a red colour, and being gathered in large crowds, seem only to the naked eye, like clusters of red specks ; and yet all of them, how imperceptible soever, make webs, and consequently spin. What then must the tenuity be of the threads which issue from the holes of their papillæ ? A hair compared to one of these threads must be thicker than the largest bar or ingot compared to the slenderest silver-wire. To say no more, these threads, which however are consistent, and hang together, are less in diameter than the thinnest layer of gold which covers the finest silver-wire.

We have already observed, that the matter whereof these threads are formed, is a viscous juice ; its first appearance is in the drops above-mentioned, where it has but little consistence ; but we find it much improved in the grand reservoirs, to which it is transmitted from the drops. We suppose a consistence required in the way by a secretion of part of the moisture, or aqueous liquor mixed therewith, made by parts destined for that purpose ; but the liquor dries still further in its

its passage to the papillæ, thro' proper canals, till at length it becomes thread. At its appearance without the hole, it still remains soft and glutinous, so that the threads of different holes stick together at some distance therefrom, and the matter does not become perfectly dry, till the air has exhaled the rest of its moisture.

Thus much is easily proved by drying a large spider by the fire, or boiling it in water. A little drying or boiling will give the matter in the drops a sufficient consistence to fit it to be drawn out into threads, and at the same time will unfit that in the grand reservoirs from being drawn ; but boiling the spider to a further degree, the matter in the drops becomes a kind of hard glue, incapable of any further drawing ; whence it appears evident, that it is by drying or evaporating the useless moisture, that the matter of silk becomes silk.

I was well nigh betrayed indeed by a specious experiment into an opinion, that it is not by the evaporation of an aqueous matter, that the threads of silk acquire their consistence. Drawing out some threads from the hind part of a spider, and winding them on a stick, I plunged the spider, stick and all, in water, and continuing to turn the stick about, found the silk threads continue to issue from the papillæ as before.——I was not yet in the secret of the method of the spider's spinning, nor knew that the threads had acquired a consistence before they issued from the holes : this consistence, tis true, is yet defective, but suffices to make them hang together ; and they continue to dry in the water. A proof hereof is, that if the drops, or the grand reservoirs, be steeped in cold water, the contained

matter gains no consistence thereby ; on the contrary, if the matter, either of the drops, or the grand reservoirs, be left a while in spirit of wine, it will acquire the same consistence, as if the spider had been dried.

We may add, that the matter in these reservoirs resembles silk in its colour, tho' in no other quality. 'Tis much like a gum, or a transparent glue, and breaks when bent to a certain degree, or a certain number of times, like glass. It is only flexible when divided into very slender threads ; and if nature have multiplied the number of holes in the papillæ, 'tis probably because the silky matter formed in their bodies, is naturally more brittle than the matter of silk-worms ; and requires to be divided in smaller parts. Without this, what necessity was there for forming such a number of separate threads to be united again after, when a single canal might have made a thread big enough at once ?

'Tis probable, that the matter in the reservoirs never grows perfectly dry, even in the air ; but that the middle parts still remain a little moist ; the external surface must necessarily dry the first ; and this surface, when dried, is indissoluble by water, and impenetrable by it ; and consequently must prevent their moisture in the middle of the mass from escaping, as well as the external moisture from entering ; and this probably was one of the reasons why spiders threads are naturally so small, since to make them strong they must be very dry ; and they never would have been sufficiently dry if they had been less slender.

It would now be time to explain from whence the prodigious ductility of this matter arises, but it is rather time to desist, the length of our memoir

moir being but ill attuned for by closing the recital of certain facts without reasonings, which are always precarious.

An explanation of the figures in plate IV.

Fig. 6. is one of the species of spiders, which spin silk, seen at the upper part.

Fig. 7. the same spider seen underneath. AA mark the place where the belly is joined to the breast.

At B are the *papillæ* and the *anus*.

DD shew the place, where the first reservoirs, which we call drops, are placed.

EE shew the place where the last reservoirs are.

Fig. 8. is a part of the belly of a spider magnified.

F is the *anus*.

GGGG are the 4 great *papillæ*, visible only when the spider holds them as in this figure, which it commonly does when one holds it.

Fig. 9. is also a part of the belly of a spider magnified; it shews all the *papillæ* disposed as they are when one presses the belly of the insect.

HH are the two most distant *papillæ* from the *anus*. A bundle of threads *a* comes out of one of these *papillæ*.

II are two great *papillæ*, almost equal to the former.

KK are two smaller *papillæ*.

L is a fleshy part which covers the backside of the spider, it raises it up, to let the excrements go out.

OMP are 3 *papillæ* magnified ; different species of spiders have them differently made.

O is one of the *papillæ* H.

M is one of the *papillæ* I. It appears that a prodigious number of separate threads N proceed from this.

P is one of the middle *papillæ* K ; all the sorts have a quantity of hairs ; but it would have made them too confused, if we had put all that the microscope discovers.

Fig. 10. RQS is one of the reservoirs which we have called drops ; the part Q is the nearest to AA in *fig. 7.* R is part of the drop ending in a point. S is that which makes a net-work, before it arrives at the great reservoirs.

Fig. 11. are 3 of the great reservoirs placed one above another, but not quite so near as they are naturally. Our view was to shew that they are three. In the animal they seem at first sight to make but one body. VVV are the nearest ends to the head of the insect.

TTT are the finest ends, and the nearest to the *anus*.

Fig. 12. is one of these reservoirs seen separately.

VI. *Reflections on the observations of the tides by M. Cassini*.*

Philosophers are not yet agreed as to the cause and effects of the flux and reflux of the sea.

Possidonius, according to *Strabo*, says, that the motion of the sea imitates the revolution of the

* Aug. 2, 1713.

heavenly bodies, and that there is in the flux of the sea a daily motion, another which follows the revolution of the lunar months, and an annual one.

That the diurnal motion is that which the sea makes in rising and falling twice in the day, that the monthly motion shews itself by the different heights of the tides, which are great toward the new moons, diminish to the first quarter, and increase to the full moon, after which they fall again. As for the annual motion, he had learned from the inhabitants of *Cadiz*, that toward the summer solstices the fluxes and refluxes of the sea were the greatest, which made him conjecture, that they diminish to the autumnal equinox ; that they afterwards increase to the winter solstice, after which they diminish, and so on successively.

Pliny affirms, that the sun and moon are the cause of the flux and reflux ; he seems to be of the same opinion with *Possidonius*, as to the daily motion of the flux and reflux of the sea, and in that which is observed in each revolution of the moon ; but he affirms on the contrary, that the greatest tides happen in the equinoxes, and the smallest in the solstices ; and that they are also greater in the autumnal equinox, than in the *vernal*. He adds, that the tides are less when the moon is northern, and distant from the earth, than when it is southern, and its force acts nearer ; and that in the space of eight years, after 100 revolutions of the moon, the same principles of the motion of the tides, and the same augmentations are observed. He observes lastly, that all these changes do not happen exactly in the times here above marked, but some days after. The effects of things which
pass

pass in the heavens are not felt upon the earth so soon as they are seen.

Several modern philosophers have also discovered three sorts of motions in the flux and reflux of the sea ; one which it makes twice every day ; another which follows the periods of the moon ; and the third which is seen every year at the time of the equinoxes and solstices.

They all agree with *Pliny* in supposing that the tides are greater in the equinoxes than in the solstices ; but they differ among themselves in what concerns the cause of these *phænomena*.

Galileo is of opinion, that the principal cause of the flux and reflux of the sea, proceeds from the motion of the earth about its axis, which it makes in 24 hours, during which it is carried on at the same time by its annual motion, which it makes about the sun in the space of a year. Altho' both these motions are made from the west to the east, each point of the surface of the earth must have different degrees of velocity with relation to a fixed point taken in the heavens. For by the daily revolution of the earth, the parts exposed to the sun are carried off a different way to that by which the earth is moved by its own motion ; and, on the contrary, the parts of the surface of the earth which are in the opposite hemisphere to the sun, are carried off by the daily revolution the same way by which they are carried on by its own motion ; from whence there results a compound motion, the velocity of which is greater than in the preceding case, and varies according to the different directions of these two motions. The parts of the surface of the earth being therefore moved sometimes slower, and sometimes faster, in the space of 24 hours, it follows, that

the waters contained in the sea, which cannot exactly follow the motion of the surface of the earth, are obliged to flow and ebb in the space of a day, just as water contained in a vessel would do, which being carried away with a certain degree of velocity, on a certain side, would flow back on the opposite side, and afterwards return toward the other edge when this velocity should begin to abate considerably. From hence he concludes, that there must be in it a flux and reflux in the space of 24 hours; but because of the water which always tends to be in *equilibrio*, and several accidents which may happen, as the different depths of the sea, and of the direction of the coasts of the sea which interrupts its motion, the flux may accelerate 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 hours, which makes them commonly observe in the *Mediterranean* the flux of the sea every six hours, though in other places we may find it different.

With regard to the motion of the tides which follow the periods of the lunar months, he pretends that they are produced by the inequality of the motion of the earth, which acquires a greater degree of velocity when the moon is in conjunction than when it is in opposition. For this he supposes, that the force proceeding from the sun acts in like manner at an equal distance from it, and moves with more velocity the bodies which are nearer the centre of their motion, than those which are farther distant; from whence it follows, that the moon must have a greater degree of velocity in its conjunction, when it is nearer the sun, than in its opposition, when it is farther distant from it, which also contributes to accelerate or retard the motion of the earth, like a pendulum, which makes quicker or slower vibrations, according as

the plummet is placed nearer or farther from the centre of its motion. This inequality of the motion of the earth in the conjunctions and oppositions, the period of which is the same as that of the revolution of the moon, is the cause, as he imagines, of the inequalities that are observed in the tides in the course of a month.

As for the inequalities which are observed in the tides in the course of the year, *Galileo* imagines that they proceed from the difference which results from the composition of the annual and daily motion, according to the different situations of the earth upon the ecliptic. For the daily revolution being made about the poles of the equator, and the annual revolution about the poles of the ecliptic, which is 23 degrees and $\frac{1}{2}$ distant from it, it follows that when the earth is in its tropicks, the circle of the declination concurs with the circle of a latitude which is called colure, and both these revolutions are made in the same direction; whereas, when the earth is in the equinox, these motions are inclined to one another in the direction of 23 degrees and $\frac{1}{2}$, from whence there proceeds a different composition of motion from that which happens when the earth is in the tropics. According to this author, there results from the difference of these two compound motions some inequalities which are the cause of that which is observed in the solstices and equinoxes.

From hence he concludes, that the periods of the tide which are regulated according to the days, months, and years, all have for their first and principle cause the annual and daily motion of the earth; and that the sun and moon come in only by accident.

Descartes, who seems better informed than *Galileo* in the *phænomena* of the tides upon the coasts of the ocean, and who knew that they there observed regularly the flux and reflux of the sea twice a day, in the space of 24 hours, 48 minutes, or thereabouts, so that the sea takes exactly 6 hours 12 minutes in rising, and as much in falling, attributed the principal causes of this phænomenon to the motion of the moon.

He judged that the celestial matter, which surrounds the earth being moved by the daily motion with more velocity than the earth, was inclosed between the earth and moon, which obliged the earth to give way a little to the opposite side. That by this means its waters were compressed on both sides, according to the direction of the moon to the earth, which made them flow back on both sides to the distance of 90 degrees, where the greatest height of the sea was. That the moon being arrived 6 hours, 12 minutes afterwards, at the distance of 90 degrees from the place where it was before the waters, which had been then raised, were compressed by the interposition of the moon, and the sea consequently was lower there than in any other place. And therefore it must have in the same place a vicissitude of high and low sea in the space of 12 hours, 24 minutes, as has been observed there.

As to the tides which in each lunation are highest in the new and full moons, and lowest in the quadratures, he pretends that this proceeds from the direction of the vortex of the earth, which according to his system, is elliptical, and has its lesser axis directed toward the sun. That in the conjunctions and oppositions the moon is in this direction, and consequently the flux and reflux of

the sea must be greater than in the quadratures, when the moon is situated in the direction of the greatest axis of the ellipsis.

He adds at last, that the moon being always in a plane near the ecliptic, and the earth making its daily revolution according to the plane of the equator, both these planes intersect one another in the equinoxes, whereas in the solstices they are very distant from one another; from whence it follows, that the greatest tides must happen toward the beginning of the spring and autumn.

Kepler in his lunar astronomy * attributes the cause of the flux and reflux of the sea to the bodies of the sun and moon, which attract the waters of the sea by a virtue almost like that of the loadstone. He owns it is difficult to explain by this means why the flux of the sea is as great at midnight when the sun and moon are absent, as at noon when they are present. However, he imagines that the flux of the night may be produced by the reflection made against the coast of *America* by the waters, that the moon has carried away with her, and reciprocally by the reflection made against the coasts of *Europe* and *Africa*, by the water that the moon brought at her return.

Sir Isaac Newton, in his *Principia Mathematica* adopts the opinion of *Kepler*, in attributing the cause of the tides to the attraction produced by the sun and moon. According to his principles he finds, that the sea must rise twice every day, both solar and lunar; and that the greatest height of the tide must happen in less than six hours after the passage of the sun and moon through the meridian, as is observed in the eastern parts of the

* Page 70.

Atlantic and *Ethiopic* oceans, between *France* and the *Cape of Good-Hope*, and upon the coasts of *Chili* and *Peru* of the *Pacific* ocean where the flux of the sea happens much about the third hour.

These two motions which the sun and the moon produce, are not perceived distinctly, but make a compound motion. In the conjunctions and oppositions these two effects are joined together, and form the greatest flux and reflux. In the quadratures the sun raises the water in the place where the moon depresses it, and the fluxes and refluxes of the sea, which result from this difference, are the least that can happen in the course of a month, and because according to experience the effect of the moon is greater than that of the sun, the greatest height of the sea must happen at the third lunar hour. He calls the lunar hour the 24th part of the time that the moon takes up in returning to the meridian of the same place.

Sir *Isaac Newton* also judges that the effects of the sun and moon are greater in their least distances from the earth than in the greatest, and that in a triple ratio of the apparent diameters. That consequently, all things being equal, the sun being in the winter in its *perigeum* the tides must be a little greater than in summer; and that the moon being in its *perigeum*, the tides must be greater than 15 days before or after, when it is in its *apogeum*.

He adds, that the effect of the sun and moon depends upon its declination or distance from the equator. That if both these planets were in the direction of the pole, they would attract all the waters uniformly; so that there would not be any reciprocal

reciprocal motion ; and therefore the sun and moon in receding from the equator towards the poles, lose by degrees their effort, and make the tides smaller in the syzygies of the solstices, than in those of the equinoxes ; but in the quadratures of the solstices, the tides must be greater than in the quadratures of the equinoxes, because the effect of the moon which is then in the equator exceeds that of the sun.

The greatest tides therefore happen in the syzygies, and the small in the quadratures which are about the time of the equinoxes, and the greatest tide of a syzygy is followed by the least of a quadrature, which he says agrees with experience. It also proceeds from the distance of the sun from the earth, which is less in winter than in the summer, that the greatest and smallest tides oftener precede the vernal equinox than follow it ; and oftener follow the autumnal equinox than precede it.

Sir Isaac Newton finds afterwards, that the effects of the sun and moon depend also upon the latitude of places ; that we may consider the sea as divided by the flux of the sea into two hemispheroides, one of which is toward the north, and the other toward the south ; that the tides of both these opposite hemispheroides pass successively through the meridian of each place in 12 hours ; that the northern countries partake more of the north tides, and the southern of the south tides ; and therefore, out of the equator the tides of each day are alternatively greater and smaller. The greatest tides happen 3 hours after the moon's passage through the meridian, when this planet declines from the equinoctial towards the zenith, and the
moon

moon changing its declination the tides will be smaller.

The greatest difference between the tides of the same day must happen at the time of the solstices, especially, when the ascending node of the moon is at the beginning of *Aries*. It is also found by experience, that in the winter the morning tides are greater than the evening ones; and in the summer, the evening tides are greater than the morning ones, at *Plymouth*, by about a foot, and at *Bristol* 15 inches.

The other opinions of philosophers concerning the cause and effects of the flux and reflux of the sea, are almost all reduced to those which I have just related; we have therefore thought it necessary to examine what those are which agree with experience, and which are those that are contrary thereto.

As to what *Possidonius* relates, he has very well distinguished the three motions of the tides which follow the periods of the days, months, and years; but he supposes that the tides are greater towards the solstices than toward the equinoxes, which is not conformable to experience. Perhaps they had observed the tides in the summer solstice when the moon was very near the earth, in which case the sea must have risen to a great height, which had given room to conjecture that the greatest tides always happen in the solstices, and the smallest in the equinoxes. In short, *Strabo*, who relates the opinion of *Possidonius*, says, that this author having been at *Cadiz*, in the temple of *Hercules*, about the summer solstice, had not observed any extraordinary tides in the full moon, but that about the new moon in the river *Bætis*, or *Quadalquiver*, there happened so great an

overflowing of the waters, that the level of the ground of the light-house, and the rampart of the port of *Cadiz* had been covered to the height of 10 cubits.

Pliny's opinion concerning the tides of the equinoxes and solstices, seems more agreeable to the observations, as he affirms, that the greatest tides happen in the equinoxes, and the smallest in the solstices; but he advances that the tides are yet greater in the autumnal equinox than in the vernal, which we have not been able to discover by the observations. What is most remarkable is, that he has found that the tides are smaller when the moon recedes from the earth, than when it approaches it; and its force acts nearer, which agrees with our observations. He also observes, that in the space of eight years, after 100 revolutions of the moon, there are the same principles of motion of the tides, and the same augmentations observed, which has a great deal of relation to the motion of the moon's *apogee*, which in eight or 9 years returns to the same point of the Zodiack after 118 revolutions of the moon, which we may consequently take for the period of the principal inequalities that are observed in the tides. He adds, lastly, that the effects produced by the motions of the celestial bodies are not so soon felt upon the earth, as they are perceived by the eye, which agrees perfectly with our observations.

With regard to *Galileo*, who pretends that the principal cause of the *phænomena* observed in the flux and reflux of the sea, must be attributed to the motion of the earth, it would be difficult to reconcile his opinion with the observations. He allows himself, that according to his principles, there must be only one flux and reflux in 24 hours, and
that

that if it sometimes happens oftener, it proceeds from several accidents, as the depth of the water, the directions of the coasts of the sea, &c. But if it was so, how should we be persuaded that these accidental causes, which vary in so many different manners, according to the different places, should cause so regular an effect, that instead of one flux and reflux in 24 hours, there should be two fluxes and refluxes in 24 hours, 48 minutes? An effect which is known to every body, and which we have observed in all the ports of *France*, that are upon the ocean, where, notwithstanding the various depth of the water, and the different directions of the coasts, the tide regularly takes up 6 hours and about $\frac{1}{4}$ in rising, and as much in falling.

Besides the periods of the flux and reflux of the sea, which we observe every day, the cause of which *Galileo* attributes to the motion of the earth, he finds, that according to his system, there ought to be in the tides a period regulated according to the revolution of the moon with regard to the sun; the earth having, as he conjectures, a greater degree of velocity in the conjunctions than in the oppositions. To this may be answered, that these different degrees of velocity, which he attributes to the earth in the new and full moons, were not known till now by the astronomers. But tho' this effect, which perhaps is not sensible enough to be observed by astronomical observations, should be enough to make an impression upon the sea as *Galileo* supposes, it would follow from thence that the tides which happen in the conjunctions would be different from those observed in the oppositions, and that those of the quadratures would be the most uniform; which does not agree with the

observations by which it has been found, that the greatest tides happen equally in the conjunctions and oppositions where they are pretty uniform ; and that the smallest are observed in the quadratures, where they are subject to more irregularities. Nor does the reason which *Galileo* relates for the annual periods of the tides seem to agree with the observations ; for in the solstices, the daily motion of the earth being made in the same direction as the annual one, it would seem that the composition of these two motions should cause greater tides than in the equinoxes, where the directions of both these motions are inclined to one another ; and yet on the contrary we observe, that the tides are greater in the equinoxes than in the solstices.

The different degrees of velocity of the annual motion of the earth when it is in its *Perihelion*, or *Aphelion*, must also cause according to this opinion, a very great alteration in the tides ; nevertheless we do not observe any considerable variation in the tides of the winter solstice, when the earth moves with more velocity than in the summer solstice, when it moves slower.

Descartes's opinion concerning the cause of the flux and reflux of the sea seems more agreeable to our observations ; for it is easy to imagine, that all the celestial bodies making by their motion some impression upon one another, the earth is obliged to give way on the opposite side to the moon ; so that the waters of the sea are compressed according to the direction of the moon to the earth, and forced to flow back on both sides to the distance of 90 degrees, which makes the high tide.

The reason which he gives why the tides are greater in the syzygies than in the quadratures, is a consequence of his system, in which he supposes, that the lesser axis of the vortex of the earth, which is elliptical, is always pointed toward the sun; so that the moon is nearer the earth in the syzygies than in the quadratures. But this does not always agree with the astronomical observations; for it is true, that the moon being in the syzygies, and at the same time in its *perigeum*, is nearer the earth than in any other phase; but we cannot conclude from hence, that the lesser axis of the vortex of the earth which carries the moon, is always directed toward the sun; for it often happens that the moon is nearer the earth in the quadratures than in the syzygies; and yet we always observe, that in the quadratures the tides are less than in the syzygies.

We cannot therefore attribute the cause of the great tides in the new and full moons to the proximity of the moon to the earth, and that of the small tides in the quadratures to its distance; and this has given us room to conjecture that the sun as well as the moon concurs in producing the height of the tides, altho' its effect was not so considerable as that of the moon; that in the syzygies both these causes acting according to the same direction, the tides must be greater than toward the quadratures when the sun acted in a direction perpendicular to that of the moon.

Kepler, and after him *Sir Isaac Newton*, have judged, that the sun as well as the moon contributes to the height of the tides, with this difference, that as we suppose the tides are produced by the pressure of the sun and moon upon the ce-

lestial matter which surrounds the earth, they have attributed this effect to the bodies of the sun and moon, which attract the waters of the sea by a virtue almost like that of the loadstone. These two hypotheses, tho' very different in their principles, seem to be equally able to give a reason for all the *phænomena* which are observed in the tides. It is true, that according to the system of the pressure, the sea must be low in the places where it should be high according to the system of the attraction; but as in the new and full moons the high-water happens in several places at different hours of the day, before and after noon, it is not easy to determine to which of these causes we ought to attribute the flux and reflux of the sea. It is therefore more proper before we embrace any system to be assured of a great number of observations, which we have hitherto done, and have had an opportunity of continuing by a new journal of observations upon the tides made at *Brest* during the years 1712, and 1713.

This journal begins the 13th of *July*, 1712, where the preceding had finished, and has been continued to *March* 1713.

In this interval, which is about nine months, they have observed the tides of 18 both new and full moons, among which are found those of the autumnal equinox, the winter solstice, and the vernal equinox.

The tide which happened the soonest was observed *Feb.* 24, 1713, at 3 hours, 6 minutes, in the morning, the new moon being marked that day in the *Connoissance des Temps*, at 10 hours, 50 minutes, at night. That which happened the latest was observed *Dec.* 13, at 4 hours, 27 minutes, $\frac{1}{2}$, the full moon being marked that day at

1 hour, 3 minutes, in the morning. The difference between these two observations, which is 1 hour, 24 minutes $\frac{1}{2}$, may be partly corrected, by supposing as in the preceding memoirs, the mean time of the full moon at *Brest*, at 3 hours, 45 minutes, and making use of the common equation of 2 minutes for an hour, which must be added to the mean time, or subtract from it, according as it retards or anticipates with regard to the time of the new or full moon. For we shall find, that the 24th of *Feb.* 1713, the day of the new moon, and of the greatest acceleration of the tide, the high tide ought to have happened at 3 hours, 7 minutes, within a minute near what it was observed at; and that the 13th of *Dec.* the day of the full moon, and of the greatest retardation, the height of the tide ought to have happened at 1 hour, 14 minutes $\frac{1}{2}$, within near 12 minutes $\frac{1}{2}$, of what was observed.

The observation of the 24th of *February* is marked for the greatest acceleration in the space of almost two years, and is distant from the mean time of the high tide 39 minutes, which by the equation prescribed, are reduced to one minute; and the observation of *December* 13, is that where the greatest retardation was found in the same space of time, and is 42 minutes distant from the mean time, which by our equation are reduced to 12' $\frac{1}{2}$, which shews the necessity of using this equation, and the advantage that may be drawn from it, for knowing more certainly the time of high-water, the days of the new and full moon.

As to the time of high-water in the quadratures, it is subject to great inequalities, which however will be partly corrected, by supposing the mean time of the high tide at *Brest*, on the day of the

quadratures, at $8^h\ 57'$ as has been done already, and using the common equation of $2'\frac{1}{2}$ in an hour instead of that of $2'$, which we suppose in the new and full moons.

They have been obliged in the quadratures to make use of this horary equation of two minutes and a half, because they have observed, that one day with another, the tides retard much more toward the quadratures, than toward the new and full moons ; and for this reason

In the new and full moons, the pressure is greater than toward the quadratures, and consequently the effect, produced upon the waters of the ocean which are in the high water, take up less time to communicate themselves towards the coasts, than in the quadratures where the pressure of the moon being much less, its effort employs much more time to communicate itself toward the coasts, and causes a retardation in the tides, which makes an effect like the waves of the sea, which are greater, and acquire a greater velocity, the greater the force is which acts them.

We have already observed, that the sea takes up more time in falling than in rising. This is confirmed by these new observations ; and it seems, that we might attribute the cause of it to this ; that the effort which obliges the waters to rise, drives them with violence, and consequently with a great deal of velocity toward the coasts, from whence they afterwards retire by their own weight with less velocity than they were raised.

With regard to the tides which happen twice in the same day, every twelve hours, they must continually change in height, since in each month they are greatest one or two days after the new and full moons ; that they afterwards diminish
continually

continually till a day or two after the quadratures; that they afterwards rise again, and so on successively; but besides this inequality of height, which they have observed at all times, it also meets with others. For we often observe, that from the quadratures to the new and full moons, the evening tide which ought to be greater than that of the morning, because the tides increase from day to day, is however sometimes several inches less in the morning than at night; and on the contrary, in other circumstances, from the new and full moons to the quadratures, they find the evening tide greater than that of the morning, tho' it ought to be less, because the tides from one day to another continually diminish.

This inequality of height in the tides has been, by Sir *Isaac Newton's* account, observed at *Plymouth*, and at *Bristol*, by Mess. *Coleprests* and *Sturmius*, who have observed that in the winter, the morning tide was greater than the evening one; and that in the summer, it was less than the evening one.

Perhaps they made these observations about the new and full moons which happen near the solstices, when there is in effect, almost always this variety of height in the tides which succeed one another every twelve hours.

For example, the 19th of *June*, 1712, the day of the full moon, the morning tide was observed at *Brest* 17 feet 1 inch, less by a foot and an inch than that of the evening, which was found to be 18 feet 2 inches.

The 2d of *July*, the day after the new moon, the morning tide was observed 14 feet 10 inches 5 lines, less by 9 inches 2 lines than that of the evening.

evening, which was found to be 15 feet, 7 inches 8 lines.

On the contrary, the 13th of *December* 1712, the day of the full moon, the morning tide was observed to be 16 feet 7 inches, greater by 4 inches 4 lines, than that of the evening, which was found to be 16 feet 2 inches and 8 lines.

The 29th of the same month, the day of the new moon, the morning tide was observed to be 18 feet 10 inches, greater by 7 inches than that of the evening, which was 18 feet 3 inches.

It appears therefore, by these observations, as by many others, which would be too long to relate, that about the new and full moons, the summer tides are less in the morning than at night; and the winter tides are less at night than in the morning, which may easily be accounted for, if we suppose, conformable to our hypotheses, that the tides are almost of equal height in the parts of the earth directly opposite to one another.

In summer, in the new moon, this planet passes about noon with the sun through our meridian, with a northern declination, and consequently its greatest force must be felt in the northern countries of our hemisphere, and in the southern countries of the other hemisphere, which are directly opposite to us. About twelve hours after, toward midnight, the moon passes through the meridian in the opposite hemisphere, with a like declination; and consequently its greatest force must be perceived in the northern countries of the other hemisphere, and in the southern countries of our hemisphere, which are directly opposite to it: the effort or pressure of the moon in the summer new moons, is therefore greater at noon in

the northern countries, where we live, than in the southern countries ; and on the contrary, this pressure is greater at midnight in the southern than in the northern countries ; from whence it follows, that the height of the tide being proportioned to the different efforts or pressures of the moon, the evening tide immediately after noon must be greater in the new moons of the summer, than the tide which happens after midnight.

In the full moons which happen also in the same season, the moon passes over our meridian at midnight, with a southern declination, and consequently the morning tide, which immediately follows, must be less than that of the afternoon, the moon passing at noon over the meridian of a place which has the northern part of the earth for its opposite, where the greatest evening tide must happen.

On the contrary, in the winter new moons, this planet passes with the sun through the meridian with a southern declination, and consequently the pressure which it occasions in the northern countries must not be then so great as those which it produces in the southern countries, and the evening tide, which immediately follows, must be less than that of the morning, the moon passing at midnight through the meridian of a place, which has its opposite in the northern part of the earth, where the greatest morning tide must happen. In the winter full moons, the moon passes at midnight through the meridian with a northern declination, and consequently the morning tide which follows immediately, must be greater than that of the evening, the moon passing at noon through the meridian of a place which has its opposite in the southern part of the earth, where the greatest evening tide must happen.

It appears therefore by this reasoning, that in the new and full moons, the summer tides must be less in the morning than at night ; and that the greatest tide must happen at night. That on the contrary, in the winter, the tides are less at night than in the morning ; and that the greatest tide must happen in the morning.

We observe only that the difference of height between the morning tide, and evening tide, is greater in summer than in winter ; which must in effect happen, because the evening tides, which in summer are greater than those of the morning, by the reasons just related, are also increased in height by the augmentation which is made in the tides every twelve hours, from one or two days after the quadratures, to one or two days after the new or full moon ; whereas in winter, the evening tide, which is less than the morning one, is increased in height, because the tides which increase in the new and full moons, are greater at night than in the morning ; which causes a less difference in the height of the tides of the same day in winter than in summer.

There are therefore two causes, which concur to the variation of height which is observed in the tide, which happen in one day every twelve hours ; one, which is produced by the continual augmentation or diminution which happen between the new and full moons, and the quadratures ; and the other, which we must attribute to the different height of the moon upon the horizon ; according to which its declination is more to the north or south. This last cause commonly prevails above the other ; when the moon is in the northern or southern signs, but it is hardly sensible in the new or full moons of the equinox, when

when the moon passes through the meridian with very little declination.

This augmentation or diminution in the tides every twelve hours, as we have just observed in the new and full moons which happen about the solstices, must be observed also in the quadratures which happen about the equinoxes.

In the vernal equinox, the moon is in its first quarter in the northern signs, and passes through the meridian at six at night, with a northern declination, and consequently the evening tide, which follows its passage through the meridian, must be greater than that of the morning. In the third quarter, the moon passes through at 6 in the morning, with a southern declination, and consequently the morning tide must be less than the evening one. Thus in the quadratures, which happen about the vernal equinox, the tides are less in the morning than at night, and the least must happen in the morning.

On the contrary, about the autumnal equinox, the moon in its first quarter is in the southern signs, and passes through the meridian at six at night, with a southern declination, and consequently the evening tide, which follows its passage through the meridian, must be less than that of the morning. In the third quarter, the moon passes through the meridian at 6 in the morning, with a northern declination, and consequently the morning tide, which follows its passage through the meridian, must be greater than that of the evening.

Thus in the quadratures which happen about the autumnal equinox, the morning tides are greater than those of the evening, and the least tides must happen in the evening.

This reasoning agrees pretty well with the observations for the 6th of *September* 1711;

The day of the least tide of the autumnal equinox, the evening tide was observed to be 10 feet 3 inches, less by 7 inches than the morning tide which was 10 feet 10 inches. The 23d of *September* 1712, the day of the least tide of the autumnal equinox, the evening tide was also observed to be ten feet eight inches four lines, less by nine inches eight lines, than the morning tide which was eleven feet 6 inches.

On the contrary, the 16th of *March* 1712, the day of the least tide of the vernal equinox, the morning tide was observed to be 10 feet 10 inches, less by 3 inches than that of the evening; and the 20th of *March* 1713, the day of the least tide of the last quarter, the morning tide was observed at 11 feet 7 inches, less by nine inches than that of the evening.

We have observed in the preceding memoirs, that the various distances of the moon from the earth cause a very great variety in the height of the tides. This is confirmed by these last observations, for the 28th of *Dec.* 1712, the day of the full moon, the distance of this planet from the earth, being 936 parts, the radius of which is 1,000; that is to say, the moon being very near its *perigeum*, they observed, *Dec.* the 30th, in the morning, the day of the greatest tide, the height of the full sea to be 19 feet, 2 inches, above the fixed point, and that of the low-water to be 1 foot, 8 inches, below this point, so that the sea had risen that day to the height of 20 feet, 10 inches.

The 11th of *Jan.* following, the day of the full moon, this planet's distance from the earth being

1064, that is the moon being very near its *apogeeum*, they observed the 15th of *Jan.* in the morning, the day of the greatest tide, the height of the full sea to be 17 feet, 5 inches; and that of the next low-water to be 1 foot; so that the sea had only risen 16 feet, 5 inches, that day, less by 4 feet, 5 inches, than in the preceding observation when the moon was near its *perigeum*.

It must be observed, that in the new moon *perigeum* of the 28th of *Dec.* 1712, its declination was 23 degrees to the south, very distant from the equinoctial, and consequently its pressure upon the earth must not be so great as when the moon being almost at equal distance from the earth, is at the same time nearer the equator.

In effect we find, that the 24th of *Feb.* 1713, the day of the new moon, its distance from the earth being 953, that is, near its *perigeum*, and its declination 5 degrees south near the equator, the height of the full sea was observed *Feb.* 26, in the morning to be 21 feet, 2 inches, which is the greatest height that they have observed at *Brest* in almost two years. The low-water following was observed to be 1 foot, 3 inches, below the fixed point, so that the tide rose that day to the height of 22 feet, 5 inches.

The 12th of *March* following, the day of the full moon, its distance from the earth being 1,032, pretty near its *apogeeum*, and its southern declination one degree, that is, near the equator. They observed the 13th of *March* following, the day of the greatest tide, the height of the full sea to be 18 feet, 2 inches, and that of the low-water 0 feet, 0 inches; so that the elevation of the sea that day was only 18 feet, 2 inches, less by 4 feet, 3 inches, than in the preceding observation,

vation, when the moon was near its *perigeum*, but 1 foot, 9 inches, greater than in the observation of *Jan. 11, 1713*, before related, when the moon being near its *apogeum*, its northern declination was 20° .

As to the small tides which follow the quadratures, we find also by these last observations that their heights are proportioned to the different distances of the moon from the earth. For example, *Sept. 23, 1712*, the day of the least tide which followed the 3d quarter, the moon's distance from the earth being 1,063 very near its *apogeum*, the height of the full sea at night was observed to be 10 feet, 8 inches, 8 lines, and that of low-water 5 feet, 10 inches, so that the sea rose that day only 4 feet, 10 inches, 8 lines. The 7th of *Oct.* following, the day of the least tide which followed the 1st quarter, the moon's distance from the earth being 976 near its *perigeum*, the height of the full sea was observed at night to be 12 feet, 10 inches, and that of the morning 3 feet, 6 inches, so that the elevation of the tide was that day 9 feet, 4 inches, greater by 4 feet, 5 inches, 4 lines, than in the preceding observation, when the moon was near its *apogeum*.

The moon's northern declination was *Sept. 22, 1712*, the day of the last quarter, $24^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$, and consequently the smallest tide following must be very low as was observed, having been found the 23d at night to be 10 feet, 8 inches, 8 lines, lower by 2 feet, than the 26th of *Dec.* when the distance of the moon from the earth being 1,036 near the *apogeum*, and its southern declination 5 degrees, the height of the tide was found to be 12 feet, 8 inches, 8 lines.

Besides,

Besides the variations in the height of the tides which result from the different distances of the moon from the earth, and its different declination with regard to the equinoctial, there must also according to our hypothesis be some that are caused by the different distance of the sun from the earth, and by its different declination, we have already observed that the tides of the new and full moons were greater than toward the equinoxes, when the sun has no declination, than toward the solstices, when it has 23 degrees, 29 minutes, and it is probable that the sun which is then in conjunction, and in opposition with the moon, concurs with it to the different heights which are observed.

With regard to the distance of the sun from the earth, as it is less about the winter solstice when the sun is just at its perigeum, than at the summer solstice when it is near its *apogeum*, the tides must be greater in winter than in summer, all things being equal, as in effect it is observed. For *July* 30, 1711, the day of the full moon, its distance from the earth being 960, and its declination 25 degrees, 29 minutes, the sun being also in its *apogeum*, they observed *July* 1st at night the height of the greatest tide to be 17 feet 10 inches. The 8th of *January* following, the day of the new moon the moon's distance from the earth being 951, and its declination 23 degrees, almost the same as the 30th of *July*, the sun being then near its *perigeum*, they observed *January* 10th in the morning, the height of the greatest tide to be 19 feet 10 inches, higher by 2 feet than in the preceding observation, when the sun was in its *apogeum*. The 19th of *June* following, the moon's distance from the earth being 936, and its southern declination 24 degrees 50 minutes, the sun being then

near its *apogeeum*, the height of the greatest tide was observed *June* 21 at night, to be 18 feet 4 inches, less by 1 foot 6 inches than in the preceding observation. Lastly, the 28th of *December* 1712, the sun being in its *perigeeum*, the moon's distance from the earth being 936, and its southern declination 23 degrees, the height of the greatest tide was observed the 30th of *December* to be 19 feet 2 inches, greater by 10 inches than the 19th of *June*, when the sun was near its *apogeeum*, and the moon at almost equal distance from the earth.

It results therefore from these observations, that there are four causes which contribute to the different heights that are observed in the tides. The first depends upon the different situations of the moon, with regard to the sun, and produces the variations that are observed in the height of the tides, from the new and full moons to the quadratures. The second is produced by the different distances of the moon from the earth, the tides being greater, when the moon is near its *perigeeum*, than when it is near its *apogeeum*. The third is produced also by the different distances of the sun from the earth, the tides being greater when the sun is in its *apogeeum*, than when it is in its *perigeeum*. Lastly, the fourth depends on the distance of the moon from the equinoctial, the tide being less when the moon has a great declination than when it is near the equator. This last cause produces also the variations that are observed in the tides which happen in the same day. These variations must be perceived differently in different parts of the earth; they must be null in the countries that are under the equinoctial line; but they are very sensible in the northern and southern countries, according as the declination of the moon is more to the north or south.

VII. *A description of a portable machine, proper to support the glasses of very great foci; presented to the academy by M. Bianchini, by M. de Reaumur*.*

The number of observations, with which M. *Bianchini* has enriched our memoirs, have sufficiently informed the publick of his ability and attention in observing the heavens; but his zeal for astronomy does not end there, for knowing better than any body how far this science has been carried since they have known how to work the great glasses, he has thought of rendering the use of them easy. Mess. *Huygens* and *Cassini* did a great deal in shewing us that we might use glasses with greater *foci* without tubes; this was removing a considerable difficulty by informing us that we might do without instruments, which it was almost impossible to construct, and which it was not easy to make use of. Notwithstanding this fine discovery there still remained many difficulties: for placing these glasses, there must be wooden towers erected such as there is in the observatory; or several solid beams raised upon the ground: it must have large spaces of ground; and besides all these inconveniences, it was necessary to employ several persons and different machines to change the direction of the object-glass, according as the star should change its place; the expences which this required were above the fortune and zeal of many private persons.

This made M. *Bianchini* think that nothing would be more proper to multiply the number of observations, or which is the same thing, to perfect

* July 29, 1713.

astronomy, than a machine which had the following qualities: 1st, that it should sustain the object glass very high, altho' light. 2^d, that the height might be easily altered according to the different elevations of the planets above the horizon. 3^d, that it should be solid and firm, without its being necessary to make use of nails to fix it, or sinking beams into the earth. From the preceding qualities it was also essential that there should result two others; that the whole machine might be easily carried about, and cost but little.

He sought for this machine, which did not appear easy to be found, and desired M. *Chiarelli*, a priest of *Vincentia*, famous in *Italy* for optical works, to seek for it in concert with him; *Galileo*, who has done so much for the sciences, was also of service to them on this occasion. M. *Bianchini* knowing what this celebrated author has demonstrated upon the force of a hollow cylinder, did not doubt but that he might contrive a support for the object glass high, solid, and at the same time light, by making use of hollow cylinders, that is, by causing tubes of different diameters to be made which should shut into one another like those of the telescopes; the use of telescopes so familiar to M. *Bianchini* had conducted him so far. He had already a support high, light, and of which the height might easily be varied; two of the qualities essential to the machine sought for: there only remained to find a solid and convenient manner of raising this high support perpendicular to the surface of the earth. This is what M. *Chiarelli* has very ingeniously executed, and has given the machine all the advantage we could wish, as will be seen by the description that we are going to give of it.

A hexagonal tube * AB about four feet and a half high, serves sometimes for a case and sometimes for a base or support to six other tubes : The breadth of each of the faces of this great tube is pretty near two inches and $\frac{1}{2}$; it is composed of six small planks either glued or nailed together ; the perfection of the machine consists in these planks being thin and of a light wood.

The second tube BC is only different from the first in its size ; it must enter conveniently into the other but not wave in it, it is longer than that which receives it, tho' its diameter is less, by which means it may more easily be taken out, or which is still better the upper end of each tube has a little rim, a sort of little collar, which cannot enter into the tube that serves for a case to it ; in the second tube there is inclosed a third tube CD, in the same manner as the second is inclosed in the first, and so on.

That the tube which serves sometimes for a base and sometimes for a case to all the rest may be supported perpendicularly to the horizon, there are three feet HHH, which like three buttresses make an acute angle with the horizon, and are supported against three of the faces of the tube. The manner in which the feet sustain it is very ingenious ; a little hexagonal tube I, which is only a few inches high, like a sort of ring surrounds part of the great tube between its aperture and the middle ; it can rise or fall freely, but is always pretty near within the bounds that we have given it ; for the more convenient explaining ourselves we shall call it a ring.

To this ring are fastened with hinges three wooden tringles HHH ; these tringles are equal between themselves, and of the same length with

* Plate 6, Fig. 13

the great tube or a little longer ; each of them are fastened over against a different face ; their breadth is also almost equal to that of one of the faces of the same tube. These three tringles are the three feet of the machine : as they are held by hinges ; it is easily imagined that by placing the ring, to which they are joined, between the middle and the upper end of the great tube, and giving it an almost equal inclination, they support the great tube on three sides, and hold it in a vertical position.

But as there might be some danger of one of the feet slipping, this has been remedied by fastening with a hinge to the extremity of each foot a little tringle KKK of the same breadth with the foot, and as long as $\frac{2}{3}$ or thereabout of the great tube ; this tringle is joined also by its other extremity with a ring L, like that to which the feet are fastened ; it is needless to say that this second ring also surrounds the great tube, that it rises and falls freely, and that it is placed near the lower end of the tube, when we would raise the machine perpendicularly ; it is evident that in this last disposition the three lower tringles hinder the three feet from parting.

The manner in which these feet and the tringles which hold them are joined together, shew that if we raise the upper and lower ring along the great tube, we at the same time oblige the feet and the tringles to lay upon the tube, the whole machine then takes up little room, as appears in the figure MILNN, and is so light that a man may conveniently carry it under one arm.

When we would make use of it, we begin by laying it upon the ground, or putting it in

a very inclined position; we then draw each tube out of the case that holds it as far as is thought necessary, and keep it in the place where we would have it remain in a manner equally plain and convenient; for this purpose M. *Bianchini* has thought of making use of very thin wedges of wood, these wedges are easily taken out and as easily put in again; the advantage of this is that we may raise or lower the machine when it is prepared, according as the elevation of the star requires; as it is light there is not much difficulty to put it in a vertical position, and to keep it in that position we need only unfold the feet.

It might perhaps be feared that its lightness would diminish its steadiness, and this would be a well grounded fear, if we could not easily remedy this inconvenience. In all places where stones are found, it is easy to give the machine all necessary steadiness; by putting some upon the tringles or traverses which hold the feet, thus we load it with weights that we are not obliged to carry about.

That the great tube which serves for a base to all the rest, may keep steady in the two rings that support it, it is necessary to pierce three holes in the thickness of the upper ring; putting a screw in each hole, and we need only screw them to adjust the tube.

If we apprehend that the point of the screws may in time pierce the wood of the tube, we may cover this tube with a band of very thin iron or copper, in the place where the ring turns when the machine is raised. By making a little notch quite round it, we may there fix the band, and it will not slip above the rest of the tube.

It is proper also to make a rim at the lower extremity of this great tube, or to drive some nails
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into it, to prevent the lower ring from slipping off the tube when the machine is carried from one place to another ready mounted.

We shall not stay to explain at length how the object glass is placed at the top of this machine, it may be done different ways; but that of *M. Bianchini* is convenient. This object glass is generally lodged in a cylindrical tube *O*, which is not above 7 or 8 inches long; but this tube has a sort of tail *P* above a foot long. This tail is only a wooden gutter; a sort of tenon *Q* of thin wood is glued against the outer surface of the tube, toward the middle of the length of this tube there is a hole in this tenon; another tenon of wood like the former is set at 7 or 8 inches distance, and is glued under the tail *P* of the tube.

In the last of the hexagonal tubes of the machine, there is put a piece of wood in which is cut a vertical notch; this notch receives the first of the two tenons that are fastened to the tube of the object glass; this tenon is held by the means of a screw.

To the second of the pieces that is fixed to the tube, or rather to the tail of the tube of the object glass, is fastened a small packthread. This packthread is at least as long as the focus of the glasses; it serves to mark the distance that the eye-glass must be fixed at.

This eye-glass is in a tube *V*, like that of the object-glass, I mean that has a sort of gutter which makes it a tail *X*, under this tail the second end of the packthread *Y* is fastened.

To sustain the tube of the eye-glass, *M. Bianchini* makes use also of a support *Z* composed of tubes that shut into one another. He has made these square, and might have made them of any other

other figure, for that is very arbitrary, and there does not seem to be any essential reason for making the tubes that serve for a support to the object glass of a hexagonal figure rather than any other.

The support of the eye-glass is composed of three tubes; the last, that is to say the lowermost *a*, is terminated by a notch; in this notch there is put a little plank *b*, and this plank is held in the notch by a screw: the thickness of this plank serves for a foot to the support of the eye-glass: this is not a very solid foot, it is however a rest, because this support is put in an inclined position, in such a manner that it makes an obtuse angle with that part of the horizon that is between it and the support of the object-glass. The packthread, one end of which is fastened to the tube of the object-glass, and the other end to the tube of the eye-glass, holds the support of the eye-glass in this situation.

As to the rest, it is easy to see of what height all the tubes together of this last support ought to be: it must be such that a man standing upright, or sitting, may apply his eye near the glass.

All the glasses with their tubes, and the support of the object-glass, may be inclosed in a small and light box; so that the same man, who under one arm carries the support of the object-glass, may with the other, carry the box that holds all the rest of the *apparatus*: thus an observer who has not near him ground enough, or ground proper for observing, carries when he pleases into the fields what is necessary for it, he is in a state of chusing the most convenient grounds for his observatory; he may do it alone; but it is however right to have a person with him to depress or elevate some of the tubes of the great support, according

cording as the star ascends or descends, though in case of necessity he might do the whole alone.

A high wind would not be a favourable time to observe with this machine; the wind however makes less impression on it than one would imagine.

VIII. *A history of an extraordinary sleeping,*
by M. Imbert.

Sleep is the most melancholy and humbling state of man; in health it has bounds that nature has the art of prolonging often by habit, or constitution. Among animals, the dormouse, and marmottee, sleep six months in the year without awaking. A sleeper of this sort is a rare example, the history of which has seemed to me to be worthy of the enquiry of a philosopher that is a curious observer.

A man of about 45 years of age, of a dry and robust constitution, whose name was *Tally*, who drove the *Rouen* coach, and was a carpenter by trade, fell into the disorder I am speaking of by the following accident. He had quarreled with a carpenter for whom he had worked; they were parted just as they were going to fight, and each went his own way. A little while after, our sick person heard that his adversary had fallen from a building, and was killed. This fatal news seized him, he threw himself with his face upon the ground, and his spirits and senses grew drowsy insensibly. The 26th of *April* 1713, he was carried to *la Charité*, where he remained till the 27th of *Aug.* of the same year, that is, 4 months. The 2 first months he gave no sign of voluntary motion or sensation; his eyes were shut day and night; he often moved his eye-lids; his
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respiration was always free and easy, his pulse was small; and slow, but equal; if you put one of his arms in any situation it remained there, (a disease that is called a catalepsy); but it was not the same with the rest of his body; they made him swallow some spoonfuls of wine to support him; and this was his only nourishment during this time; he therefore became lean, dry, and emaciated; a very different state from that which he was in before. M. Burette, under whose hands he was, at first made use of the most powerful assistances of art, bleeding in the arm, the foot, the neck, emetics, purgatives, blisters, leaches, and volatiles, and this without being able to procure any other relief to him than that of talking very sensibly to his family, and the clergy, for an entire day, after which he fell again into his sleeping. The two last months of his stay at *la Charité*, he by intervals gave some marks of sensation, sometimes pressing his wife's hand, and at other times by melancholy complainings; but this would happen when they had been several days without purging him. From this time he ceased to do all under him; being careful to turn himself to the edge of the bed, where a waxed cloth was put on purpose, and not to do any thing till he found himself there, and then he did his occasions, and returned to his place; he began also to take broths, pottage, and other sustenance, keeping still his first inclinations, a great thirst for wine. He never made any signs that he wanted any thing. At the times appointed for his meals, they touched his lips with their fingers; at this signal he opened his mouth without opening his eyes, and swallowed what was given him; he then lay still expecting patiently a second notice. They shaved

him regularly, but he was all the time like a corps set upright. If he was taken up after dinner, they found him in his chair with his eyes shut in the same posture that they had left him. A week before he went out of *la charité*, they threw him naked into cold water to surprise him. This remedy surprised him effectually ; he opened his eyes, looked steadfastly, but did not speak at all. In this condition his wife carried him home, where he is at present : they give him no medicine ; he speaks sensibly enough, and mends every day.

Here is a stumbling block for a philosophical reasoner ; being always impatient to get the mastery of nature in her most hidden designs, he sees, admires, and searches, and yet discovers nothing. I shall venture however to propose to the company as conjectures, some reflections that I have made upon so singular a history. That I may represent them in order, I shall first examine how grief may produce this kind of sleep ; in the second place I explain the different alteration which have happened to it ; in the last place I seek for examples that may have some relation to it. In the first proposition two things are to be considered ; upon what sleep depends, and the manner in which grief acts. There are many causes that produce sleep in general : in the brain, obstruction in the glands, compression or relaxation ; from hence commonly proceed apoplexies, and lethargies : in the blood, impoverishing of the spirits ; and from hence proceeds the indispensable necessity for man to sleep to repair them ; spirits too much incumbered by the gross parts ; and hence proceeds the disposition always near to the sleeping diseases. Such was the state of our

patient before he fell. A carpenter by profession, and a sot by inclination, qualities which commonly furnish thick blood, the active principles of which are hard to be disengaged; reason proves it, and experience confirms it every day. This being supposed, it remains to examine the manner in which grief acts. Grief is a disease of the mind, one of the most terrible and most fatal, rage, despair, fear, revenge, and melancholy, are its usual effects. What disorders do not passions of this nature produce in the machine! Some precipitate the motions of the spirits without order, whence phrensies arise, and an infinite number of acute diseases, others retard the course of it, and therefore produce hypochondrical affections, and the greatest part of chronical diseases. The grief of our sleeper is of the last sort: at the news of his enemy being killed, he is seized with terror, and fills himself with melancholy ideas; fear and sadness retain his spirits in the brain, his blood naturally thick and deprived, if I may use the expression, of the *primum mobile*, thickens more and more, its parts draw closer, hang together and entangle the spirits; hours of rest are no longer sufficient, but whole months are requisite to separate a quantity of it necessary for waking. In this respect I am not afraid of comparing him to the marmotte: being thus asleep he is its true image. This animal, heavy by its natural constitution and dull, abounds with fat during the time of its sleeping; it takes no nourishment in its six months sleep; the spirits disengage themselves insensibly by the motion alone of the circulation of the blood, and the respiration which it preserves: at the end of this time it awakes without any help; the six months that it is awake, it

eats reasonably, exhausts but little, its blood becomes of the same sort, and it sleeps again. Perhaps from the same principles, and the same reasoning, we might explain in a more probable manner the changes which happened to our patient during his sleeping; the two first months his sleep was profound; his blood in all appearance had acquired the quality of the blood of the marmotte, the other two months without opening his eyes, or speaking; he however by intervals, gave some signs of sense. By the exact diet that he observed, the spirits disengaged themselves, and a greater quantity of them were separated; the marmotte requires six months, nature has so ordered in forming it; here it is an accident, and may be repaired in less time. We have a proof of it, and our patient grows better every day; it now remains to seek for the examples which may have relation to it. Neither the ancient nor modern authors furnish us with any. M. *Homburg* read to the company in the year 1707, the extract of a *Dutch* letter printed at *Goude*, containing the history of an extraordinary lethargy; it deserves to be set down here as a parallel; grief was the occasion of it; the sleeping was preceded by a melancholy affection of three months. For the length of time the *Dutch* sleeper exceeds the *French* one, he slept six months successively without interruption, and during this time gave no signs of voluntary motion, nor of sense; at the end of six months he awaked and discoursed with every body; and 24 hours after he returned to sleep again; perhaps he may be asleep still, for we have not the rest of this history. The carpenter in question, in four months sickness, had only two of real sleep, but the cataleptic accident, the signs which he
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preserved of a man asleep, those which he gave of a man awake, the effects that followed the bath of cold-water, are so many rare particularities, which render the fact worthy of the attention of the most learned philosophers and physicians; my design was to have entered into a particular explication of all these accidents, but the fear of being troublesome makes me defer it to another dissertation.

A N

A T A B L E

O F T H E

PAPERS contained in the ABRIDGMENT
of the HISTORY and MEMOIRS of the
ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at
PARIS, for the Year MDCCXIV.

In the HISTORY.

- I. **O**N the passage of air and water through
certain bodies.
- II. Of some extraordinary effects of thunder.
- III. Of some petrified shells found at a considerable
distance from the sea.
- IV. Of the American rat, or mus alpinus.
- V. On the effect of the siphon in vacuo.
- VI. On the greatest possible perfection of the ma-
chines moved by animals.
- VII. Of a new theory of the working of vessels.

In the MEMOIRS.

- I. Observations on the rain water, the thermome-
ter and barometer, during the year 1713, at
the royal observatory, by M. de la Hire.
- II. Observations on the gum lacc, and other ani-
mal substances, which furnish the purple dye,
by M. Geoffroy, jun.
- III. A justification of the measures of the ancients
with regard to geography, by M. Delisle.

IV.

- IV. *Observations to determine the difference of the meridians between Paris and Leyden, and between Paris and Upsal, by M. Maraldi.*
- V. *Observations on a very singular small species of aquatic worm, by M. de Reaumur.*
- VI. *On the new observation of the tides made in the port of Brest, by M. Cassini.*
- VII. *Of the effects produced by the torpedo, or numb-fish, and of the cause on which they depend, by M. de Reaumur.*
- VIII. *A comparison of the ancient Roman foot, with that of the Chatelet at Paris, with some remarks on other measures, by M. de la Hire.*

A N
A B R I D G M E N T
O F T H E

PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOVERIES and OBSERVATIONS in the HISTORY of the ROYAL ACADEMY of SCIENCES at *Paris*, for the year 1714.

I. *On the passage of air and water through certain bodies.*

WE are commonly persuaded, that water; though more gross than air, penetrates certain bodies, as paper, which air does not. But perhaps also it penetrates them for this very reason, that it is more gross; that is, that it has power to make passages which air cannot; perhaps also air penetrates the same bodies as water, but without being perceived; for it is very dangerous in philosophy to suppose facts which are not strictly proved, and we are generally mistaken in them.

M. *de Reaumur* has thought of a very simple and infallible method of being sure of these facts and all others of the same nature. The quicksilver keeps suspended in the barometer, only because the tube is so exactly closed at its upper extremity, that no air can enter. If any should enter, the quicksilver would immediately fall in proportion to what got in, and if it entered by little and little, the quicksilver would also fall by degrees, till at last it was quite upon a level. If instead of air it was water that entered into the barometer

rometer, the quicksilver would still fall according to the weight of this quantity of water. We know how much the quicksilver ought to fall for a determinate quantity of both; and reciprocally by the quantity of its falling we know how much of either got in. But if both entered, the water being visible, we know how much air must have got in to make the total effect. It is evident that we must always consider how much the quicksilver ought to fall independantly on the entrance of the air, or water, by the sole variation which would happen to the barometer at the time of these experiments.

This being supposed, we need only close, as *M. de Reaumur* has done, that extremity of the barometer, which is to be uppermost, with the matter which is to be examined whether it is penetrable by air; if the quicksilver sinks in the tube independantly on the diminution of the weight of the atmosphere, we shall be sure that some air has got in, which must have penetrated the substance which stopped the end of the tube. And this sort of proof has this advantage, that the air acting only by its gravity against what stops the tube, and this gravity being a known force, equal to 28 inches of quicksilver, we know it is this entire force which at first causes the air to enter, since the top of the tube is perfectly void, and incloses no air that resists the outer air. If the air continues to enter, we know by the quantity which is already entered, and which is known by the falling of the quicksilver, how much the force which drove it is diminished, and if the quicksilver at last comes to a level, we see that the least force is capable of making the air pass through the body under examination. We see also, which is very considerable, what are the different times,

in which this force continually decreasing has occasion to act according to its different decreasings. But if the question is about water instead of air, or about both together, *M. de Reaumur* has contrived to make with a certain composition, impenetrable by air, a little rim raised above the tube, by means of which he has a little vessel, into which he pours the quantity of water desired, and the same reasonings follow.

I shall now mention the result of the experiments which he has made upon these principles.

Air passes through paper even the thickest, but less quick.

Let the impelling force be ever so little, it passes but more slowly.

If paper be ever so little wetted, the air does not pass through, it begins to pass again as soon as the paper is dry; If we would have it continue wet, it must be rubbed with oil.

Air passes pretty freely through old parchment. It does not pass when it is wet.

It is known that water penetrates the bladders of several animals from without inwards, and not from within outwards. Air seldom penetrates a hog's bladder, when its inner surface is exposed to it; and when it does penetrate it, it is with an extreme slowness, especially when it is impelled but by a small force.

Air does not penetrate a hog's bladder by its outward surface, but water penetrates it, tho' pretty slowly.

There passes with the water a very small quantity of air, which proves both that water may pass where air does not, and that when it does pass, it is by opening itself passages, thro' which air takes the advantage of accompanying it.

Water

Water, tho' impelled only by a little force, penetrates the inner surface of the bladder, which it does not penetrate in the living animal, but this is because it is not then impelled by any force, since these two surfaces are equally pressed by the inward and outward air : Thence *M. de Reaumur* concludes, that membranes of our body, which in their natural state are not penetrable by certain liquors, will become so when an extraordinary rarefaction of air shall cause them to be less compressed by one of their surfaces than by the other. We see by this example, that *M. de Reaumur's* experiments, which might naturally be useful in the arts, will be so also in medicine, and this unforeseen use may give us reason to expect more.

II. *Of some extraordinary effects of thunder.*

The Chevalier *de Louville*, being at *Nevers*, observed some remarkable effects of a violent storm of thunder there ; a tree of the park of the castle, was split into three at the top of the trunk, and had three furrows of unequal bigness made in the wood, just as if three musket balls had been shot from the top of the tree towards the root ; the tree was barked on one side from about the middle quite to the bottom ; tho' it was crooked, yet the three strokes followed the bendings exactly, sliding continually between the wood and the bark, both in the upper part of the trunk which was still covered with bark, and in the lower part which was covered but on one side ; but what was most remarkable was, that the wood was not blackened at all, and had no sign of burning.

Upon this, the chevalier *de Louville* explains how thunder can have great effects without burning ; it is certain in the first place, that it has great

ones upon animals, and that when it falls pretty near them, the sulphurous vapour alone is sufficient to take away their breath and kill them, without the appearance of any hurt or bruise upon their whole body. But as for the tree, there must be another cause; *M. de Louville* thinks that when the thunder falls from such a height, that its flame is dissipated before it can reach the earth, the air being violently driven by the impetuous motion of this flame, and consequently condensed in an extraordinary manner, becomes a sort of hard body, of which the shock must have a great deal of force.

Hence also he explains another clap of thunder, the effects of which he saw at *Nevers*, the same day. There was a faggot upon the two dogs laid in the chimney in order to be kindled, the thunder fell down the chimney and broke the faggot into a hundred thousand bits, without setting fire to it, or so much as blackening it; probably the funnel of the chimney confining the course of the air, had also augmented the impetuosity of it.

On this occasion it was said, that the kindled matter which forms the thunder, may come out of the cloud in a small quantity, and afterwards find in the air a great deal of matter of the same nature and kindle it, for then the air is extremely loaded with sulphurous exhalations. Perhaps this is partly the reason why lightning crinkles, for it is seeking in the air for a nourishment which is irregularly dispersed.

III. *Of some petrified shells found at a considerable distance from the sea.*

M. de Lagny has seen in *Poitou* some petrified shells very well preserved, which were found 8 or 10 feet deep in the ground, upon some hills 10 or 12 leagues from the sea; there were among these shells several *cornua ammonis*. He saw also a field quite covered with oyster shells as large as plates.

IV. *Of the American rat, or mus alpinus.*

M. Sarrafin physician at *Quebec*, from whom we have had an exact and curious history of the beaver in the memoirs of * 1704, has sent one of the *American rat*, which is very like that which Mr. Ray has described under the name of *mus alpinus*. It also so much resembles the beaver, that M. Sarrafin, who knows them very well, says he should take it at first sight for a beaver of three or four months. That which he dissected weighed four pounds; we shall not enter into the anatomical particulars.

This rat is of the class of animals that gnaw. In *March*, when the snow that always falls abundantly in *North America*, is not entirely melted, it goes out and lives upon pieces of wood that it breaks; after the melting of the snow, it commonly lives upon the roots of nettles, afterwards upon the stalks and leaves of that plant, and in summer upon strawberries and raspberries, its nourishment grows continually more delicate. A little while after its going abroad it thinks of multiplying its species; they go freely together 'till autumn, and at the beginning of winter they se-

* Vol. II. Page 181 of this abridgment.

parate, and take up their lodging each in its hole, in some hollow tree, without any provisions. This is what the savages relate, who according to M. *Sarrafin*, observe the nature of animals pretty well, which is the only part of philosophy with which they are acquainted.

To make the long time which the *American rat* must live without nourishment more probable, M. *Sarrafin* relates that at *Quebec*, he chained a bear fast under some planks covered with snow; from *November*, and that in *April* when the snow was melted it was found there alive and well.

V. *On the effect of the siphon in vacuo.*

A bent tube or *siphon* being put into a vessel full of water, by one of its branches, which I call the first, and the other consequently the second, it is plain that the pressure of the exterior air upon the water of the vessel must not make it rise in the branch, because this branch is filled with an air that presses the water which answers to it, and opposes itself to its elevation with a force equal to that of the exterior air. The air contained in the second branch has also the same action as that of the first, and opposes itself in like manner to the elevation of the water; but if we go to suck at the end of the second branch, we draw the air of both and diminish the quantity of it; and consequently the exterior air, which presses upon the water of the vessel becomes the strongest, and makes the water rise in the first branch, from whence it passes into the second.

If we leave off sucking, we must in order to know what will happen, determine the length of the second branch with regard to that of the first. The air, which tends to enter again into
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the second branch, and from thence into the first, has in this tendency or action the whole force of the weight of the atmosphere, *minus* that of the column of water contained in the second branch, which acts against it. On the other side, the exterior air which elevates the water in the first branch, has the whole force of the weight of the atmosphere, *minus* that of the column of water contained in the first branch, the elevation of which exhausts a part of its force. Thus here are two forces equal in themselves, but both weakened by the circumstances and acting one against another; if they are equally weakened, that is, if the two branches of the syphon are of the same length, there will be an *equilibrium*; and consequently as soon as we leave sucking, the water will cease rising in the first branch, and going out by the second. Much more will this effect happen, if the second branch is the shortest, and by the contrary reason the water will continue to go out by the second branch, if that is the longest, as it always is in the syphons, which are intended only for this use.

The weight of the air therefore is the cause of the effect of the syphons, and no philosopher disputes it; the syphons also being put into motion in the free air yield the water more slowly in the pneumatic machine, in proportion as we pump out the air, and at last quite stop when the air is pumped out as much as it can be. If we place them again in the free air they do not begin to flow, unless we suck them anew, and it evidently must be so, because they are in the same case as if they had never flowed.

M. *Homborg* however has observed that certain syphons, which had stopped in the *vacuum*, had begun again to flow of themselves, as soon as
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they were set again in the free air ; these have a very small diameter, as about $\frac{1}{3}$ of a line : now what force must that be which puts them in motion again as soon as they are in the free air ?

When they were first there they emitted the water drop by drop, and at the distances of about 2 seconds, whereas the others of a greater diameter emit it in continued threads of an equal diameter to that of the second branch. This difference comes from the very small syphons being full of water as soon as they are wetted, in their inner surface, a drop of water which wets a small part of this surface, joins itself to the drop of water which is overagainst it, and this by a certain viscosity, which naturalists acknowledge to be in water. When these syphons are in the free air, and are once moistened by the water, which has passed through, that their motion may be continued, the weight of the air must surmount not only the weight of the water which it has raised, but the viscosity of it also, which is performed only by a certain quantity of water collected, and consequently with a certain time, and thence it comes that these syphons flow only drop by drop and at several times. Each drop that comes out partly falls, because it is impelled by the weight of the upper drops. When we put these syphons *in vacuo*, not only the weight of the air acts continually less and less, and at last acts no longer, but also the air contained in the water is extended, because it is no longer pressed by the outward air ; it disengages itself from within the water, and forms great bubbles, which interrupt the *series* of the drops of water, with which the two branches were moistened and filled ; and those which are at the extremity of the second, have no longer a
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sufficient weight, and are no longer sufficiently pressed by the others to make them fall. If we replace the syphons in the free air, the air which was extended is obliged to resume its first bulk, the drops of water which it no longer keeps separate fall again, the upper upon the lower ones, and the syphon begins to flow again as fast as it is wetted, but always drop by drop, and always more slowly, and does not cease 'till its second branch is dry, at least to a certain point.

It follows from this explication, that if water was without air inclosed in its interstices a very small syphon would continue to flow *in vacuo*, as long as it was wet. This is also what M. *Homburg* has experimented with water freed from air, whether because it had been made to boil well, or because it had been put into the pneumatic machine, and this *phænomenon*, which seems at first sight so contrary to the system of the weight of the air, agrees perfectly with it, and is a necessary consequence of the spring of the air stretched by its gravity.

It is easy to foresee, that if for the experiment of the capillary syphons, we make use of liquors which contain more air, or air which disengages itself more easily, such as fermented liquors, the syphons will stop sooner in the *vacuum*, also, all the rest being equal, they must stop sooner in winter than in summer, for in winter the air is more disposed to disengage itself, since in frozen liquors it is full of great bubbles; we shall judge also by this experiment, that fat liquors, as oil or milk contain less air, or air more engaged, for with these liquors the syphons do not stop in the *vacuum* in any time whatsoever.

VI. *On the greatest possible perfection of machines moved by animals.*

Mechanicks can do nothing more ingenious and more useful at the same time, than to determine how far they may be useful, and in what bounds all the advantages which they promise are contained. All possible machines are moved either by animals or by fluids, which are made to work instead of animals; those of the last sort have already been examined by *M. Parent*, and now he examines those of the first.

An effect of a machine can never be greater than the natural and simple effect of the power which moves the machine. Thus if the natural effect of the force of a man is to raise 24 pound, by going 1000 toises in an hour, and of a horse to raise 170 pound, by going 1800 toises in an hour, a machine moved by a man or by a horse could never do more let it be compounded with ever so much art, and it would even be much less because of the inevitable frictions, but we do not consider them here. The effect of the machine moved by a man will therefore never be more than the product of 24 pounds, by a 1000 toises of velocity in an hour, or the product of 24 by 1000, in what manner soever this product is formed by the weight and by its velocity; for it is always the same quantity of motion, and thence it follows, that a man going 1000 toises in an hour, may raise a weight of 24000 pounds, provided this weight goes but one toise in the same time, and it is the same with all the other infinite ways by which the product 24000 may be formed. The mechanical effect therefore has necessarily for a limit the natural effect of the power which moves
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the machine, and indeed it is impossible to draw a new force from nothing. If we would have a man going 1000 toises in an hour raise 24 pound, it is best not to use any machine, but if we would have him raise more than 24 pound, there must be one, which preserving to the man his natural velocity, diminishes that of the weight in proportion as it is bigger: the whole comes to this, the different arms of the lever, by which either the power or the weight act in machines, only regulate their velocities, and always represent them geometrically.

When therefore we have a machine moved by animals, which raises a weight, its effect being the product of the weight by the velocity which the machine gives it, there is nothing more easy than to compare this effect with the natural effect of the animals, and thereby to see how much it is less, for it is always so because of the frictions; the more the machinal effect shall approach to the natural, the more perfect will the machine be.

If animals draw one or more boats, the obstacle which they have to overcome is the resistance of the water, the greatness of this resistance depends, 1st, on the greatness of the surface which pushes the water before it. 2d. on the velocity of this surface with regard to that of the water, which is called the *respective* velocity of the surface: If it is moved the same way with the water, its respective velocity is the excess of its velocity above that of the water; if it is contrary to the water, its respective velocity is the sum of its velocity, and of that of the water; if the water has no velocity, as that of a pond, then the respective velocity of the surface is its proper and absolute velocity. Now it must be remembred, that because we are considering a moved fluid, we ought to take the

square of the respective velocity. 3d. The resistance of the water depends on its weight, or on its mass, for it is plain that the same surface moved in the air with the same respective velocity, would find less resistance than in water.

The obstacle which animals have here to overcome is therefore the product of these 3 magnitudes, the weight or mass of water, the surface moved in the water, and the square of its respective velocity: *M. Parent* concludes from several experiments made by skilful mathematicians, that the water of the *Seine* striking against a surface of a foot square, with a velocity of a foot in a second, has a force of 22 ounces; it now remains to know, what shall be the surface that the boats shall present to the water, the difficulty is that their surfaces are crooked, and may be differently crooked in each. But *M. Parent* shews a very easy way of making them all equal to a plain surface, I mean the surfaces immersed in the water, which must push it before them or bear its resistance; we need only put upon the end of a post in the middle of the river a fixt pulley, over which passes a cord, one end of which is fastened to the boats that we would draw, and the other to a great flat table, plunged in the water by degrees, 'till it receives a sufficient impression to be driven according to the stream, and thereby obliges the boats to move in order to rise again; it is certain the part of the table immersed in the water, will be a surface equal to those of all the boats together, which have the resistance of the water to surmount, there will be as many times 22 ounces of force in the water, as square feet in this surface.

We shall therefore have the resistance of the water expressed in a certain number of pounds, acting
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with a velocity of a foot in a second against a surface of a certain number of square feet. Here is what the effort of the animals must equal in the state of *equilibrium*, here is what they must sustain out of the *equilibrium*, here is the resistance they must surmount to draw the boats, and as they will impress a certain velocity upon them, which will augment the resistance of the water, which the animals will have to overcome, it will be the weight of 22 ounces taken as many times as there are square feet in the flat surface of the experiment, and multiplied by the square of the respective velocity of the boats; and it is plain, that this product can never be greater than the natural effort of the animals, as we have determined.

If it is a running water, its velocity enters into the expression of the respective velocity of the boats, whether they go up or down, and as this velocity is determined, that of the *Seine*, for example, to be one foot in a second, there is a determinate quantity which enters into the resistance of the water, and consequently requires that a certain part of the force of the animals should be determined also. All the rest almost is free, that is, we may vary the force of the animals as we will, and the opposite charge, which is the sum of the surfaces of the boats immersed in the water. If the charge remaining the same the force of the animals diminishes, or which is the same thing, their number, for we must suppose that they always go with the same velocity, or if the force of the animals remaining the same, we augment the immersed surfaces of the boats, either by augmenting their number or loading them more, it is plain that in these two cases the boats will go more slowly. But if the water is still, the respective velocity of the boats being no more than their proper velocity,
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and the determined velocity of the water making no longer a part of it, then all is free, and we may draw as great a number of boats, or as much loaded as we will, with as small a force as we will, on condition that the boats shall go very slowly, and this is only what is continually found in all mechanicks.

If the animals which draw the boats are applied to a machine fixed upon the shoar, as M. *Parent* supposes, this machine will furnish the arms of a lever, one of which will belong to the animals, and the other to the opposite charge or load, the proportion of which will represent that of the velocity of the animals, to the velocity of the boats.

But if instead of a machine fixt upon the shoar, we make use of a machine carried upon the boats themselves, which can be only a double mill fastened on the outside to the two sides of the first boat which will draw the rest, then the water acting against the sails, or vanns or floats of each mill, and obliging the cord drawn by the animals to turn about a roller, will impress on the boats a motion added to that which the animals impress on it.

In all cases whatsoever, M. *Parent's* theory gives him a sure mean to find any magnitude whatsoever, that enters into the moving force or the load opposed, when the other magnitudes shall be given or known. It is only a calculation, but it sometimes requires art and delicacy in the application, and thence it comes to have its particular beauty.

VII. *Of a new theory of the working of vessels.*

This year there appeared a new book of M. *Bernoulli*, intituled an essay towards a new theory
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of the working of vessels, the first and only one that has hitherto come out of his hands ; for he has contented himself with dispersing either in our memoirs, or in the *Leipsic* acts, different detached pieces, each of which is equal in value to many a great book. The occasion of this work was the *theory of the working of vessels* by the Chevalier *Renau*, printed in 1689, when it appeared, M. *Huygens* had a considerable difficulty with M. *Renau* on a fundamental point. As these subjects do not belong to pure geometry, but depend on a very nice mixture of geometry and physicks, and besides as this was quite new, and as M. *Renau* was the first who ventured to touch upon it, it was no wonder, that there should still remain some difficulties to clear up, or even that the geometricians should be divided about it: and indeed they were divided, for some were for M. *Huygens*, others for M. *Renau*, and among these last was M. *Bernoulli*, who not having seen M. *Renau*'s book, judged of the dispute only as it had been explained to him by the Marquis *de l'Hopital* ; a long time afterwards he saw the book and altered his opinion, but he still found himself in opposition to M. *Renau* on another important point, which M. *Huygens* had not taken the pains to consider, or else had been convinced of it, and as the alteration of these two points make a different theory from that of M. *Renau*, much less simple indeed and more embarrassing, but according to M. *Bernoulli* necessary, and by its great very difficulty more inciting to a great geometrician, he resolved to make a complete work of it. We shall give an account of it, as if it was the only one that had been composed on this subject, and without entering into either side of the controverted points, we shall only give some preliminary or general informations which

which will facilitate the understanding of the book, for in order to a more large discussion, the book itself ought to be consulted.

Suppose a vessel at rest with its sail, which is supposed to be flat, and continues always so notwithstanding the action of the wind; this vessel being impelled by the wind in a first instant, takes at present, because of its great bulk, no more than an almost infinitely small velocity, and consequently the water resists it but very little. The wind blows again in a second instant, and impresses on the vessel a new velocity, which being added to the first makes an accelerated velocity, and the water makes more resistance to this greater velocity.

Lastly, the velocity of the vessel is continually accelerated from one instant to another, and the resistance of the water continually augments also, till this resistance becomes of an equal force to the augmentation of the velocity of the vessel; then if the wind and water were to be suddenly annihilated, and the vessel consequently found in the *vacuum*, it would go to infinite according to a right line, with an uniform velocity equal to the last degree of acceleration, which it received from the wind in the last instant. But this last degree, to which the resistance of the water is equal, being acquired, the vessel is not in the *vacuum*, the action of the wind and the resistance of the water always subsist; however, because this action and resistance are become equal, they mutually destroy one another, and the vessel is in the same case as if it was in the *vacuum*; it will go therefore thenceforward with an uniform velocity, and the continual action of the wind upon the sail will only destroy the continual resistance of the water. It is in this state of uniform velocity that the motion of the vessel is considered.

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That the motion may be effectively uniform, the wind must no longer accelerate it; and for this it must meet the vessel, not as flying before it, for it would accelerate its motion; but as being at rest, and that the wind may always meet the vessel as being at rest, tho' it really flies, the velocity of the wind must be as infinite with relation to that of the vessel. This is also what *M. Bernoulli* supposes in his whole theory. It is true, that when a vessel makes 3 leagues in an hour, whilst the wind makes 5, the supposition is very far from the truth; but *M. Bernoulli* reasons safely upon this supposition, the known errors of supposition are not errors in geometry.

The force of the wind, which drives the vessel with an uniform velocity, and the resistance of the water being equal, and destroying each other, these two forces must act one against the other in the same right line, for otherwise they would produce a common effect, and not destroy one another.

The force with which the wind acts upon a sail always supposed flat, depends upon three things, or magnitude, by which it is produced, as that of every fluid which strikes a plain surface.

1. On the magnitude of the surface.
2. On the angle of incidence of the fluid on the surface:
3. On the velocity of the fluid.

The 1st point is clear.

As for the 2d, it is clear that a fluid, which strikes a surface obliquely, strikes it only according to the degree of perpendicularity in its direction; that is, according to the sine of the angle of incidence, and consequently the impulse is

so much stronger as the sine is greater, or the oblique impulse less oblique. Besides, in proportion as the incidence is more oblique, a less quantity of the fluid strikes the surface, and we shall see it plainly by conceiving the incidence infinitely oblique or parallel to the surface, for then the surface is not struck by any quantity of the fluid; and in the opposite case, which is that of the perpendicular incidence, it is so thro' the whole possible quantity of the fluid. It is very easy to prove, that the different quantities of water, which answer to the different incidences, are as the sines of the angles of incidence. Whence it follows, that the forces of the different impulses are as the squares of these sines.

For the 3d point, every body knows that the different impulses of a fluid, moved with different velocities, are as the squares of these velocities; because a fluid moved with more velocity, strikes both with more force, and in the same time with a much greater number of parts, and that this greater number is in the same *ratio* with a greater velocity.

Therefore the force of the wind upon the sail is a product of the surface of the sail, by the square of its sine of incidence, and by the square of its velocity. If we suppose the wind always the same in different cases, its velocity is no longer to be considered. It will be the same with the sail always supposed the same.

The resistance of a water which is not running, as that of the sea, to a vessel which moves, is the same as the impulse of the same water if it was running, against the same vessel at rest. Thus the resistance of the water is regulated by the impulse

pulse of the wind upon the sail, though with a great difference which must be observed.

A vessel has a crooked surface, composed consequently of an infinite number of plain surfaces infinitely small, differently inclined to each other, which causes the incidence of the water to be different from each of them; whereas the incidence of the wind is the same upon the whole sail, always supposed flat. From all the *partial* resistances of the water to each infinitely small surface of the crooked vessel, there is formed a *total* resistance, which may be also called mean; and it is this resistance alone that is equal, and directly opposite to the action of the wind upon the sail.

To be able to express it geometrically, we must know the curvity of the vessel, and the geometricians plainly perceive, that we should then fall into integrations that are often impossible, and always difficult. M. *Bernoulli* avoids all this difficulty by considering at first a vessel, which is only an oblong rectangular parallelipiped, or if you please, a simple parallelogram, which consequently has but two sides differently struck by the water.

These principles being established, and these suppositions made, there are two principle things to be considered on the motion of the rectangular vessel, its course and its velocity.

It is plain at first, that its course, or the direction of its motion, depends on the line, according to which the wind impels the sail. The wind, which in general is supposed oblique to the sail, impels it only according to what perpendicularity the sail has in its direction and by no means according to its parallelism, and consequently the line

according to which the wind impels the sail, is always perpendicular to it. Thence it follows, that if the sail is always in the same situation, or directed according to the same diameter of the horizon, the wind, tho' it falls upon the sail under different angles, will always impel it according to the same line, because the perpendicular to the sail will be always the same, or directed to the same point of the horizon. Much more will it be so, if the incidence of the wind is always the same, for the wind blowing according to a certain determined diameter of the horizon, the equality of incidence determines the sail to be directed according to another diameter of the horizon, which is always the same. M. *Bernoulli* calls the perpendicular, according to which the wind impels the sail, *the line of the moving force*.

If the vessel was round, the perfect uniformity of its figure would make it find in all its parts an equal resistance of the water, and consequently it would go according to the line of the moving force, or the perpendicular to the sail. If the vessel being rectangular had infinitely more facility to cleave the water according to the line of its *keel*, which would be a right line drawn thro' its centre parallel to the great side, than according to the line perpendicular to the keel, it would go according to the line of the keel, and not according to that of the moving force; for it receives from the wind an impression of motion, and because of the resistance of the water supposed infinite according to the great side of the parallelogram, this motion cannot be executed but according to the small side, and consequently will go only according to the line of the keel. But the
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supposition was chimerical, and the vessel which has more facility to cleave the water by the little side than by the great one, has not infinitely more of it, and consequently is found in a mean case between the two extremes which we have considered; one of which was that of the equal resistance of the water, and the other that of its resistance infinitely unequal. Therefore, if in the 1st case it followed the line of the moving force, and in the 2d that of the keel, it must in the mean case follow a mean line, which will be its true course.

In the construction of vessels it is endeavoured to give them such a curvity, that the greater facility they have to cleave the water by the prow, or according to the line of the keel, than by the side, may be the greatest possible, and the intention should be, that the course be made according to the line of the keel. It is impossible however, but that the water must resist the prow as well as the side, though much less, and consequently the line of the course turns aside more or less from that of the keel, according to the greater or less inequality that there is between the resistance that the water makes to the prow, and that which it makes to the side, which comes from the different figure of the vessel. The angle which the course makes with the keel is called the *Angle of the Derivation*.

It seems at first, that the magnitude of this angle must depend only on the greater or less inequality of the resistance of the water, or which comes to the same thing, on the figure of the vessel. But M. *Bernoulli* makes another consideration to enter into it. The figure of the vessel being determined, the line of the moving force may be

be such, that it will drive the vessel more according to the keel, which is the way by which it advances most easily, or that on the contrary it will drive it more according to the perpendicular to the keel, which is the least favourable way to the motion. Now the more the vessel shall be impelled the way that it advances most easily, the more will its course approach to the keel, and on the contrary. And consequently the vessel having always the same figure, the angle of the derivation will vary according to all the different positions that the line of the moving force can have with relation to that of the keel.

It is evident, that if the line of the moving force concurs with that of the keel, there is no derivation, and the course is made according to the keel.

When the course is as usual, a mean line between that of the moving force and the keel, this mean line is in the same case, as if according to the theory of compound motions it resulted from the actions of two forces, one of which acts according to the line of the moving force, and the other according to the keel. In this case, if these 2 forces were expressed by the two lines which they would endeavour to run over in the same time, the diagonal of the parallelogram, of which these 2 lines would be the sides, would express the result of their actions, or the lines that the movable ought to run over. We may therefore conceive the vessel as impelled by 2 winds, and for the greater facility, by 2 winds perpendicular to one another, each of which should be perpendicular to the sail which is exposed to it. We suppose also the sails equal. It would seem that the 2 lines, which each wind in particular will make the vessel
run

run over in the same time, being determined in magnitude, the diagonal of the rectangle will be the course that the vessel will make in the time determined, but M. *Bernoulli* reasons otherwise. The velocity, which each wind in particular would impress on the vessel, is uniform, according to what we have said, and the resistance that the water will make to each of these velocities, is equal to the force with which the vessel is impelled by each wind. Now here all the magnitudes which enter into the resistance of the water being equal, except the velocities, the two resistances of the water, each equal to the force of the corresponding wind, are therefore as the squares of the velocities, and consequently we ought to consider the vessel as impelled by two forces which are as these squares. The parallelogram, the diagonal of which shall be the course of the vessel, must not therefore be made under two sides, which are as the velocities, but under 2 sides which are as their squares, which changes the direction or position of the diagonal, or of the course.

The course of the vessel will be represented by this diagonal, but not by its velocity, since the sides of the parallelogram represent not the velocities but their squares. This diagonal will therefore represent the square of the velocity of the vessel, whence the velocity will be easily deduced.

But to examine the velocity yet more closely, let us consider, that it is so much the greater as the moving force is greater, and moves the vessel according to a line more favourable to the motion.

The wind and the sail being always supposed the same, the greatness of the moving force depends

pendes only on the incidence of the wind upon the sail, the nearer this incidence approaches to perpendicularity, the wind has the more force, and the vessel the greater velocity.

But if we suppose the incidence of the wind upon the sail always the same, and consequently the moving force equal, there is still one thing which makes the velocity of the vessel vary, the position of the sail with regard to the wind being determined and fixed, that of the sail with regard to the keel is not so, and we may by means of the rudder, put the keel into different situations with regard to the sail, the course is a mean line between that of the moving force; which in the present supposition is fixt, and that of the keel. We have already seen, in speaking of the angle of *derivation*, that according as the line of the moving force was more or less approaching to that of the keel, the vessel was impelled in a manner more or less favourable to its motion, and this is the second condition on which the velocity depends; we shall now see this more particularly.

The course is a mean line between the line of the moving force and that of the keel, and it changes its direction as we have seen, when the angle of these 2 extreme lines changes. Therefore the position of the line of the moving force being fixed, if that of the keel changes, the course changes also. It is on the direction of the course that the different incidence of the water on the great side depends, and on the little one, of the rectangular vessel that is, that according to the different course the angles of incidence of the water upon each of the two sides vary between themselves, and are more or less unequal. These two angles taken together always make a right

one, but the fines of two angles that are equivalent to a right one, do not make a sum equal to that of the fines of 2 other angles, which are also equivalent to a right one, and consequently according to the different course of the vessel, the sums of the fines of the angles of incidence of the water upon the two sides are different. Now these fines or their squares express the different resistances of the water to each side, and consequently the sum of the two *lateral* resistances of the water varies according to the different course, and consequently also the velocity of the vessel. It is plain that a less velocity answers to a greater sum of the lateral resistances.

The two lateral or partial resistances of each course produce a mean or total resistance, which it is easy to calculate. Each of these mean resistances is equal to the force by which the vessel is impelled. Now in the two different courses, the moving force is the same, since the incidence of the wind upon the sail is supposed the same; therefore the two mean resistances are equal. and as there necessarily enters into the expression of each, the particular velocity, by which the vessel is impelled according to each course, we have the relation of these two different velocities to magnitudes, into which there enter only the known sides of the vessel, and the courses or lines which depend upon it.

From all that has been said it results, that there must be *a greater* for the velocity of the vessel, that is, that the incidence of the wind upon the sail being always the same, there will be a position of the keel with regard to the line of the moving force, so that the vessel will have a greater velocity in this disposition than in any other. This

greater velocity, which the calculation gives without difficulty, is found when the diagonal of the rectangular vessel is in the line of the moving force, and consequently perpendicular to the sail; one might be surpris'd at first, that it is this diagonal, which should be put in this situation, and not the keel, that is, the line drawn through the centre of the parallelogram, parallel to the great side, for the keel is always the most favourable line to the motion. But it is easy to see that the greater velocity answers to the least resistance of the water, and that it is at the point, or at any angle whatsoever of the parallelogram that the water resists the least; what had been called the keel was not so in reality, it is the diagonal that is so, and the error of the word being dissipated, there is no longer any paradox.

The line which expresses each velocity, is always taken upon the line of the course, and as the different velocities of the vessel for each course, or which comes to the same thing, for each position of the keel, have known relations, we may conceive the infinity of lines which will express the velocities as drawn, and forming by their extremities a curve, which M. *Bernoulli* calls *the determiner of the velocities*. He shews how to draw it by points, that is, for all the different positions of the keel, the angle of the wind with the sail being always the same.

This being done, we see that unless the line of the course does not touch the curve, which only one course can do, it cuts it in two points, and as all the points of this curve determine the velocities, there are therefore, except in one single case, two different velocities for one single course; and because each point of the curve answers to a different

position of the keel, we may make the same course with 2 different positions of the keel, but with 2 different velocities. It is very easy to see which of the two is the greatest, and we must chuse that, and consequently give the keel the position which answers to it.

There is a considerable advantage which they often endeavour to procure by the working, and that is *gaining upon the wind*, as a wind which blows from east to west, for example, and falls obliquely upon the sail, impells it only according to a perpendicular, it does not impel the vessel to the west, and the perpendicular may be such as shall be directed according to the line of the S. E. and consequently its direction will partake of a direction from W. to E. and lastly the impulse of the wind supposed will tend to make it go partly from W. to E. and even against the wind. Now it is an advantage to go against the wind, or to gain upon the wind, not only when we would take a course, to which it is almost entirely contrary, but when we would board a vessel, or avoid being boarded by it. M. *Bernoulli's* curve shews also what is the course that we must hold, or the position that we must give the keel, to gain upon the wind as much as possible.

If the course that we would hold is determined, which is the most usual case, we find by means of the curve, that 2 different positions of the keel are equally proper for it, and we ought to chuse that which gives the greatest velocity.

All that has now been said supposes the angle of incidence of the wind upon the sail constant, or to speak more exactly, the line of the moving force always directed to the same point of the horizon, which, as we have seen, subsists as long as the sail

is directed according to the same diameter of the horizon, whether it receives the wind under different angles or under the same; but if the position of the sail changes, which makes the direction of the line of the moving force change, or of the perpendicular to the sail, then there would answer to this new position of the sail another position of the keel, with regard thereto, to give to the vessel the greatest possible velocity in this new hypothesis. And in like manner all the infinitely different positions of the sail will have their different positions of keel corresponding to a greater velocity.

If we had determined neither a position of the sail according to a certain diameter of the horizon, nor a position of keel with regard to the sail, and had sought to determine these two positions together, to have the greatest possible velocity, this greater velocity would be therefore the greatest among the infinite number of greatest, each of which results from a certain determinate position of sail, and from the most advantageous position of the keel corresponding thereto. The determination of this *greatest of the greatest*, is one of the most elevated geometrical problems. M. *Bernoulli* resolves it, and is led by this resolution to important remarks, the occasion of which is rare. But we cannot enter either into this inquiry, or these reflections. M. *Bernoulli* himself prefers another method for the practice; he calls it mechanical, and yet it depends on a sublime geometry.

If for each different position of the sail the determining curve of the velocities was described, there should be an infinity of these curves, since there may be an infinity of positions of sail infinitely little different, and this infinity of curves, the first and second, the second and third, &c. would
in-

intersect each other successively in points infinitely near. The series of this infinity of points of intersection would form a new curve which would touch all the *determiners of the velocities*, and would contain all their conditions and advantages. M. *Bernoulli* supposes it, not exactly, which is impossible in practice, but sufficiently well described; and he shews how to find by means thereof, what will be the position both of the sail and of the keel, to make a course proposed with the greatest possible velocity, or to gain the most upon the wind.

Hitherto the figure of a parallelepiped or parallelogram, which has been given to the vessel, has been very different from that which is usually given them. To come still nearer, M. *Bernoulli* takes a vessel which has the figure of a rhomb, or losenge, but the same principles always subsist, only the explications of it become more difficult, and the calculations more complicated. Lastly, after having passed thro' these degrees, M. *Bernoulli* comes to a curvilineal figure. It is in general any portion of a curve, which has an *axis*, and ordinates.

The curve which represents the figure of the vessel cannot be struck by the water, but according to the line of the course, or which is the same thing, parallelly to this line. The parallels to the course drawn upon all the infinitely small sides of the curve are different incidences to it, but each of them strikes only according to a perpendicular to a little side that it strikes. Any one of these perpendiculars to the curve being drawn or conceived to represent all the rest, it is composed of two directions, one of which is perpendicular, and the other parallel to the *axis* of the curve.

|Thence

Thence it follows, that each little side is struck or impelled according to two directions, one perpendicular, and the other parallel to this *axis*. If we have the proportion of the sum of all the impulses perpendicular to the *axis*, to the sum of all the parallel impulses, a rectangle, of which the two sides shall have this proportion being described, the diagonal will represent the impulse or mean resistance of the water, and the position of this diagonal will be necessarily oblique to the *axis* of the curve. We know by all that has been said, that the position of this line of the mean resistance of the water is always the same as that of the line of the moving force.

If the incidence of the water upon all the little sides of the curve changes, there are formed two other sums of impulsions or resistances, perpendicular and parallel to the *axis* of the curve; these sums have another proportion, and consequently the diagonal of the supposed parallelogram, or the line of the mean resistance of the water, changes in magnitude and position, and the line of the moving force changes also in position. Now the incidence of the water on all the small sides of the curve necessarily changes, as soon as the vessel changes its course, which is visible; therefore the change of the course makes the position of the moving line change. It is reciprocally plain, that if the position of the line of the moving force changes, that of the course changes also. The position of the line of the moving force gives that of the sail, since it is always perpendicular to it.

These two lines, that of the moving force and that of the course being mutually dependent on each other, as to the position, one of the two positions

sitions being given, the other therefore may be deduced from it. Let us suppose at first the position of the given course.

To have that of the line of the moving force, or of the mean resistance of the water, we must have the sums of the lateral resistances of the water, some perpendicular, the others parallel to the *axis* of the curve, and consequently determine the curve. *M. Bernoulli* supposes the figure of the vessel to be formed of two equal circular segments, having the keel for a common chord, which comes pretty near the ordinary figures. He expresses algebraically the differentials of the two sorts of lateral resistances, and happily the sums of these are found to be integrable; and consequently he has their proportion, whence all the rest follows. This proportion is pretty compound.

It changes, as we see it must do, at each alteration of the course, but there are 2 principal causes, which in some sort change the species of it. There is always one half of the vessel, which bears the resistance of the water, whilst the other is intirely covered from it. If the half exposed to the resistance of the water is one of the two circular segments entire; or if this half is composed of the 2 equal halves of the two segments, it is plain that the resistance of the water is considerably different in the 2 extreme cases, much greater in the first, because the vessel takes no advantage of its pointed figure to cleave the water; and much less in the second, because it takes as much advantage of its point as possible. Now what determines the half of the vessel exposed to the water is the 2 lines parallel to the course, the most distant from it on both sides that can be drawn through two points of the surface of the vessel. If they pass through the 2 extremities or points of the vessel,
it

it is in the first case, and presents to the water only one single circular segment ; if they pass thro' the 2 extremities of the perpendicular drawn thro' the middle of the keel, the vessel is in the second case, and presents to the water the half of each circular segment, or advance of point.

If the 2 parallels to the course pass thro' the 2 points of the vessel, or extremities of the keel, and at the same time are each of them tangents of their segment or circular arch, it follows from thence, that the arch which they touch, or the infinitely small side, which is one part of them at the point of contact, makes with the keel the same angle as the course. But if the course, and consequently the two parallels come to incline more upon the keel, and consequently to make with it a less angle than the fixed angle, and consisting of each circular arch with the same keel, then the two parallels become tangents of the 2 circular arches in other points, and one of the points of the vessel begins to be contained in the part exposed to the water, and is more and more so, till at last the line of the course being infinitely inclined to the keel, or concurring with it, the two parallels are tangents of the vessel at the two extremities of the perpendicular, which passes through the middle of the keel. But if the angle of the course with the keel is greater than that of each of the two circular arches with the keel, the two parallels pass always through the two extremities of the keel, but without being tangents of the vessel, the part exposed to the water is always one entire circular segment ; and lastly, the course may concur with the perpendicular to the keel. These are the two principal cases which change the species of
of

species of the proportion between the lateral resistances of the water.

We shall find the velocities of the vessel of a circular figure for different courses, the moving force being the same, as we have found those of the rectangular vessel. It is the same reasoning.

But if in the vessel of a circular figure, the position of the line of the moving force was determined, and the course was to be determined, we might do it; but by an algebraical calculation, so long and so compound, that M. *Bernoulli* thinks it more proper to substitute tables, wherein the positions of the line of the moving force should answer to all the courses, and the courses to them. These tables should also contain the velocities.

To bring all this to the utmost exactness, we should determine the figure of the vessel, which would make it bear the least possible resistance from the water. This determination has already been made for a vessel, the course of which should be according to the keel, but it is not in the supposition of all the other possible courses, and as the resistance of the water will change in all these courses, there must be a different figure of a vessel for each of them: It does not appear therefore, that geometry can aspire to this enterprise, and we must hold to the trials of experience, which will nearly determine a mean figure, the most suitable to all the courses.

The position of the line of the mean resistance of the water with regard to the course, or which comes to the same thing, with regard to the keel, being determined, this line necessarily passes through a certain point of the keel. On another side the line of the moving force passes through the middle of the sail, and what is a necessary consequence of it, through the mast to which the sail is fastened,

or, which comes to the same, through the foot of the mast which always rests upon the keel, or, lastly, through a certain point of the keel. If the course is such, that the line of the mean resistance of the water, and that of the moving force pass only thro' the same point of the keel, the resistance of the water, which is equally distributed on both sides of the line of the mean resistance, is therefore not equally distributed on both sides of the line of the moving force, and as these lines must however be one right line, the vessel will turn till they are both in this position. To hinder this turning, we must know through what point of the keel, the line of the mean resistance of the water passes, and there fix the mast.

M. *Bernoulli* shews how to determine this point. The resistance perpendicular to the *axis* of the curve being express'd algebraically and conceived as so many weights fastened to a lever, which is the *axis*, have a common centre of gravity therein. In like manner the resistances parallel to the *axis* have a common centre of gravity upon a perpendicular to the *axis*; two perpendicular lines both drawn through these two centres of gravity, intersect each other in a point, which is the centre of gravity of the two species of resistances; the line of mean resistance therefore must pass through this point, which consequently determines the point where it cuts the keel, and where the mast should be fixed.

But as the line of the mean resistance changes for every course, the point where the mast should be planted would change also, which being impossible in practice, we can only find for the mast pretty nearly a mean situation, the most commodious for all the different courses.

It remains only to rectify the supposition of the sail always flat, it is very certain that it is not, and that by the action of the wind it takes a certain curvity, thereby the line of the moving force changes, and it is a perpendicular to the curve of the sail, such that on both sides the impulses of the wind on the differently inclined parts of the sail are equal, or which is the same, that it is its *axis of equilibrium*, as the line of the mean resistance of the water is the *axis of equilibrium* of all the particular resistances. We must therefore determine the curvity of the sail, or which is the same problem more simple, the curvity of a simple cord, which should be in the same circumstances as the sail, and for this it is necessary to establish two principles, one of which has been already in this discourse.

1st. A homogeneous and perfectly flexible cord being stretched, it is equally so in all its parts, what figure soever it takes by the tension; for if we conceived one part to be more stretched, as it would make an effort to resume its first state, it would draw to it a less stretched part, which would yield to it, and consequently both would come to an equal tension.

2. A cord, which in its different parts receives oblique impulses or pressures, is impelled or pressed only according to the perpendiculars to the points of incidence, and these perpendiculars are the sines of the angles of incidence.

When a cord bends because it is drawn by weights or pushed by a fluid which acts upon it, it is stretched or impelled at the same time and by the same forces, but is equally stretched and unequally impelled or pressed. And to see the difference of these two actions of tension or pressure still better, we need only observe, that a cord or any part

whatsoever of a cord, is stretched only so far as it is drawn according to its length or direction, and that on the contrary it is pressed only so far as it is pressed perpendicularly to this length.

The tensions make no alterations by themselves in the direction of a part of a cord, but the pressures change it, since they necessarily impel this part according to a certain perpendicular.

When a cord bends, its only because each of its infinitely small parts, which becomes a side of the curve, receives the action of a power different from that which has acted on the preceding side, or which shall act on the following. Thereby each little side takes a different direction from those of the two sides which contain it. If a cord was at the same time unequally stretched, and unequally pressed, we ought to conceive some side longer, because of the inequality of tension, and at the same time of a direction more or less different from that of the neighbouring side, because of the inequality of pressure. Now I suppose it is known, that the greatness of the bending of a curve is in a direct *ratio* of the greatness of the change of direction from one side to the other, or of the angle of contingence and in a reversed *ratio* of the magnitude of the sides into which we conceive it to be divided. Therefore if the cord was unequally stretched and pressed, it would take a curvity which would be in a *ratio* compounded of the reversed *ratio* of the tensions, and of the direct one of the pressures. But the cord is always equally stretched, therefore its curvity is only in a direct *ratio* of the pressures, and there is the general determination of all these sorts of curves. As the *radii* of the evolutes are always in a reversed *ratio* of the curvatures, we must take these curves so that their *radii* of the evolute at each point may be in a reversed *ratio* of the

the pressure at the same point. Therefore we have only to determine what shall be the different species of pressure.

If we consider, as we do here, a sail swoln by the wind, the pressures will be as the squares of the sines of the angles of incidence of the wind upon each little side of the curve. This is plain from all that has been said; we suppose that each thread of wind gives its stroak to the sail, after which it goes freely out of its cavity; otherwise it would make in this cavity different reflections, which would change the primitive impulses, and consequently the nature of the curve.

If the sail contained an elastic substance, as air, the spring of which acts equally every way, it is plain that the pressures being all equal, the curve sought would be a circle.

If we supposed a linnen bent by a heavy liquor, which it should contain, the pressures would be the heights of the different columns of this liquor.

We must not forget in this place that M. *Bernoulli* finds again what he had formerly demonstrated, that the curve of the sail is the same with the *catenaria*, a curve formed by a cord fastened at its two extremities to two fixt points, and bearing at all its points, of which the number is infinite, as many equal weights. It seems that by following the reasonings which have been made, one may easily prove the identity of the two curves.

The *catenaria* is equally stretched in all its parts, and consequently it will be the same as the curve of the sail, if the pressures on both sides follow the same proportion. The pressures of the *catenaria*, are drawings of weights, all the directions of which are vertical and parallel. The direction of each weight is oblique to each little side of the *catenaria* and consequently must be decomposed into perpen-

perpendicular and parallel to the *axis* of the curve, which is the line drawn from one of the fixt points to the other. The perpendicular to the *axis* is the only line, according to which the weight draws the side, it is the sine of the acute angle, which is made by the vertical direction of the weight with the side, and, if we may so speak, of the angle of incidence of the weight. The greater this perpendicular to the *axis*, or this sine is in proportion to what parallelism there is in the direction of the weight, the more it acts or draws with force.

It is easy to see, that by taking the curve from one of the fixt points to its middle, the sines of the angles made by the directions of the weights with the sides are continually increasfing; for all the weights being supposed equal, their actions or drawings can be only as their distances from this fixt point, which continually augments, but their actions are as these sines, therefore the sines continually augment from a fixed point, where the origin of the curve is, quite to its middle.

This being supposed, each side of the curve is so much the more drawn, not only as each weight acts by a greater sine, but also as each weight acts with more advantage with regard to a neighbouring side, for to draw the cord downward, it is sufficient for a weight to have any force whatsoever, but to bend it actually, it must draw it more than another weight draws it, without which all the force possible would be of no service. In a word, there must be a force in each weight, and an inequality of forces in all, I mean in one half of the curve. Now not only the force of two weights taken separately and by themselves will be expressed by two sines, such as we have marked, but their inequality, or proportion of forces will be expressed by the same sines; whence it follows, that
the

the drawings of these two weights will be as the squares of these sines, which is exactly the proportion of the pressures of the wind in the curve of the sail. Therefore the curve of the sail and the *catenaria* are the same thing.

In the application of M. *Bernoulli's* theory to practice, there is a very considerable advantage, that to determine the position of the *axis of equilibrium* of the impulses of the wind, or of the line of the moving force upon the bent sail, we are not obliged to know the nature of the curve of the sail, and to calculate it, which would be very difficult. M. *Bernoulli* demonstrates, that if from the middle of each of the two sides, one above, the other below, which terminates the bent sail, we draw a tangent, the line, which shall bisect the angle of the concurrence of the tangents, will be the *axis of equilibrium* of the impulses of the wind.

*An Explanation of the Terms of
Art used in this Volume, which
were not explained at the End of
the former Volumes.*

C.

C *Repusculum* the Twilight.

E.

Empalement of a flower is that part which covers the *Petals*, or coloured leaves. In a rose, the five green leaves on the outside of the flower, is the *Empalement*.

I.

Iris is the variegated circle, which surrounds the pupil of the eye.

L.

Lamina spiralis is a thin plate, which divides the *cochlea*, or last cavity of the ear into two parts. That part, which is next the
axis,

axis, is bony, but extremely brittle; and that next the outer shell is membranous, appearing to be only made of the auditory nerve.

M.

Membrana tympani, is a thin transparent membrane, which closes the inner extremity of the *meatus auditorius*. It is of an oval figure, stretched out like the head of a drum; it makes an obtuse angle with the upper and back part of the *meatus*, and an acute one with the lower and fore part.

S.

Summit or *apex* is used to express those little buttons, which are sustained by the *chives* or *stamina* in flowers. They are most commonly of a yellow colour, and contain a fine golden dust, which is thought to be analogous to the male sperm of animals.

Syzygia or *syzygy*, is used to express either the conjunction of a planet with the sun, or its opposition to it.

T.

Terras of the observatory at *Paris* is a platform on the top of that famous structure. It is paved with flints laid in mortar, cement, and lime.

Tympanum is a pretty large cavity in the ear, situated behind the *membrana tympani*; it is about 3 or 4 lines deep, as many wide, and between 2 or 3 high. It is lined with a fine membrane, on which there are several veins, and arteries. In this cavity are contained 4 small bones, called the *malleolus*, the *incus*, the *stapes*, and the *os orbiculare*.

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CON-

CONTINUATION *of the* ADDENDA.

In the MEMOIRS. of 1701.

X. *Of the meridian of the royal observatory, prolonged to the Pyreneans ; by M. Cassini*.*

The journey, that we made this year by order of the king into the southern provinces of his kingdom, was to prolong the meridian line of the royal observatory, to measure it quite to the extremities of *France* by geometrical operations ; to divide it into degrees of the circumference of the earth by the observations of the stars ; to examine whether these degrees are equal between themselves as has been supposed till this age, or whether they are sensibly unequal, as several modern mathematicians suppose ; whether the perpendicular lines marked by the plummet in our geometrical and astronomical instruments, are all directed to the same point, which is taken for the centre of the earth, according to the common *hypothesis*, or whether from different places, which are at a great distance from each other, they are directed to points sensibly different, as several moderns conjecture.

These last inquiries ought to have been made before it was undertaken to calculate the whole circuit of the earth by a small part. For unless these

* November 14, 1701.

two last *hypotheses* of the roundness of the earth, and of the direction of the perpendicular to the same centre are well established, there is no certainty in the practice of this method. Thus *Pliny* had some reason to admire at the boldness of the human mind, in attempting such difficult things. The enterprize alone of examining these two *hypotheses* by observations is great, and would be rash without the protection of so great a king. The *hypothesis* of the roundness of the earth, as composed of continents and seas, that of its detachment from the heavens, and of its suspension in the air, was first of all founded upon the observation of the apparent motion of all the stars from east to west, and on the diversity of the apparent constitution of the heavens, in the voyages made almost under the same meridian towards the south and towards the north. This diversity compared with the length of the way gave the first views of measuring the circumference of the earth by the observations of the stars. The oldest author now extant, who has related the particulars of this method, is *Aristotle*, who speaks of it as a thing already in practice in his time.

He expresses himself to the following purpose, at the end of his second book *de cælo*.

“ It is manifest, says he, by the appearance of
 “ the stars, that not only the earth is round, but
 “ that it is not of any immense bigness; for if we
 “ travel ever so little towards the south and north,
 “ the horizon varies, and the vertical stars, which
 “ we have over our heads, make a great change,
 “ and are not all the same that we see going to the
 “ north and south. For there are some which we
 “ see in *Egypt*, and near *Cyprus*, which we do not
 “ see in the northern countries, and towards the
 “ north there are some stars which we always see
 “ above

“ above ground, tho’ they set in the places just
 “ mentioned. Wherefore those who think that
 “ the sea, which is at the pillars of *Hercules*, unites
 “ and makes the same sea with that which is at the
 “ *Indies*, do not imagine improbabilities.

“ The mathematicians, adds he, who endeavour,
 “ to calculate the magnitude of the circumference
 “ of the earth, make it amount to 400,000
 “ *stadia*. Whence it is inferred, not only that
 “ the earth is spherical, but that it is not very
 “ great with regard to the other stars.

This must have been the language of the authors of this dimension. For *Aristotle* far from supposing the earth to be a star, in the preceding chapter refutes the *Pythagoreans* of *Italy*, who reckoned the earth in the number of the stars, and ascribed to it a motion about the centre of the world, so as to make the alternative of days and nights ; which they would not have done, if they had not supposed the earth to be nearly of the same figure and bigness with the stars. This dimension related by *Aristotle* might therefore be ascribed to the *Pythagoreans*, who were the authors of this *hypothesis*. It is almost twice as big as it was afterwards found by other mathematicians. But it did not appear large enough at a time when there were yet some philosophers, who, after *Xenophanes*, questioned whether it was not of an immense magnitude.

Immensum ne patent terræ ima, et largior æther.

The appearances of the stars related by *Aristotle*, suggest two methods of undertaking the measure of the earth, which were practised in the following ages: One by the observations of the stars situated vertically in one place, and at a distance from that situation in another ; the other by the obser-

vation of the stars in the horizon of one place, and elevated above the horizon of another.

Eratoſthenes, under king *Ptolomy Euergetes*, put the firſt method in practice; he knew that at the time of the ſummer ſolſtice the ſun paſſed over the vertical point of the city of *Syene*, ſituated in the confines of *Ethiopia* under the tropic of *Cancer*. There was a well made for this obſervation, which on the day of the ſolſtice at noon was quite illuminated by the ſun, and it was notorious that at 150 *ſtadia* round it, the ſtyles raiſed perpendicularly on a horizontal ſurface made no ſhadow; having ſuppoſed *Alexandria* and *Syene* to lie under the ſame meridian, he obſerved at *Alexandria* on the day of the ſolſtice the diſtance of the ſun at the vertical point, by the ſhadow of a ſtyle raiſed perpendicularly from the bottom of a concave hemisphere; he found that this diſtance was the 50th part of the circumference of a great circle; whence he concluded, that the diſtance between theſe two cities was the 50th part of the circumference of the earth. Having computed this diſtance to be 5000 *ſtadia*, he had the whole circumference 250,000 *ſtadia*.

Having divided it equally into 360 degrees, he had 694 and almoſt $\frac{1}{2}$ to the degree. But afterwards, inſtead thereof he took the round number 700, not thinking perhaps that it would answer to 5 or 6 *ſtadia* in a degree.

And multiplying 700 *ſtadia* by 360 degrees, he had in the circumference 252,000 *ſtadia*, which is the laſt dimension of *Eratoſthenes*, which he commonly made uſe of. *Hipparchus* alſo made uſe of it, tho he judged that 2520 *ſtadia* ought to be added to this dimension.

Dionoſidorus only took for the ſemidiameter of the earth $\frac{1}{6}$ part of its circumference drawn from
the

last dimension of *Eratosthenes*, in the letter which was found in his tomb after his death, to make it believed that he had gone down to the centre of the earth, and that having measured the distance he had found it 42,000 *stadia*.

Vitruvius and *Pliny* reduce the measure of *Eratosthenes* of 252,000 *stadia*, to 31,500 Roman miles, allowing 8 *stadia* for a mile.

Possidonius, in the time of *Pompey* the great, undertook to measure the circumference of the earth by the second method, that is, by the horizontal observations.

He learned that at *Rhodes* the star *Canopus* did but just appear at the horizon, and set immediately; and that at *Alexandria*, which he supposed to be under the same meridian, it rose above the horizon $\frac{1}{48}$ part of the circumference of the heavens, which answers to a like part of the circumference of the earth of $7^{\circ} \frac{1}{2}$, and supposing the distance between these 2 cities to be 5000 *stadia*, he had the whole circumference of the earth 240,000 *stadia*. This is the first dimension of *Possidonius*, related by *Cleomedes*, an author of the same age, adding that it must be diminished, if the interval (in *stadia*) is not found to be quite so great.

Strabo, who wrote his geography under *Augustus* and *Tiberius*, ascribes to *Possidonius* the dimension of the circumference of the earth of 180,000 *stadia*, which are in the proportion of 500 *stadia* to the degree, it was not easy to discover the foundation of this; but here it is. The same author testifies in another place, that *Eratosthenes* had measured the distance between *Rhodes* and *Alexandria* by instruments, and found it to be 3750 *stadia*, taking it for $\frac{1}{48}$ part of the circumference of the earth according to *Possidonius*, there result 180,000 *stadia*. It may therefore be called

called the last dimension of *Possidonius*, in which were used his dimensions in degrees, and that of *Eratosthenes* in *stadia*. It was received by *Marinus Tyrius* the geographer and others. It is commonly ascribed to *Ptolomy*, because he made use of it in his geography. We shall not here relate what is opposed to these methods, we shall only observe, as a thing of some consequence, that having taken exactly the mean between the last dimensions of *Eratosthenes* and of *Possidonius*, we have in a degree of the circumference of the earth 600 *stadia*, in a minute 10 *stadia*, which by the account of *Pliny* and *Vitruvius* make 1 mile $\frac{1}{4}$ of the ancient *Roman* measure. Now the modern *Italian* mile is equal to 1 mile $\frac{1}{4}$ of the ancient miles, the distance of 25 miles, which the ancients reckoned between *Bolonia* and *Modena* being esteemed at present to be 20 modern miles. The modern *Italian* mile is 10 *stadia*, which make a minute, according to the mean dimension between that of *Eratosthenes* and *Possidonius*. The degree of the circumference of the earth will be therefore by this account 60 modern *Italian* miles, and 75 ancient miles. The circumference 21,600 modern miles, 27,000 ancient miles.

Allowing to the mean league 3 ancient miles, we shall have 25 leagues in a degree, and in the whole circumference 9000 leagues.

After *Eratosthenes* and *Possidonius*, several have made use of the heights of the pole, in the measuring of the earth. The mathematicians of the Caliph *Almamon* having taken the heights of the pole in the plains of *Singar*, at the extremities of two degrees, found 56 miles in one degree, and 56 miles $\frac{2}{3}$ in the other, and judged their measure to be less than that of *Ptolemy* by 10 miles. This is very different from all the other dimensions, which
make

make it much greater. The geographer of *Nubia*, an author of the 12th century, allows 25 leagues to the degree; this dimension was confirmed by that of *Fernellius*, this author made use also of the heights of the pole taken from the observations of the sun, to find a place nearly under the meridian of *Paris*, which was a degree distant from it, and having measured the distance of it by the wheel, he found it 56747 toises, having abated the turns of it at discretion. According to the estimation of the people of the country, this distance was 25 leagues.

Snellius, who surpassed in exactness those who had gone before him, made use of the heights of the pole observed at *Alkmaer* and *Bergen op zoom*, differing between themselves $1^{\circ} 11' \frac{1}{2}$, and having measured the distances by the triangles, he found in a degree 56,946 toises of 6 *Rhinland* feet each, and by the difference between *Alkmaer* and *Leyden* at the distance of $\frac{1}{2}$ a degree, he found 57,020 toises in a degree; He took for a mean between the two 57,000. *M. Picard* considering the difference between the *Rhinland* and *Paris* feet, reduces it to 55,021 toises.

Above 42 years ago I made several attempts at *Bolonia* and at *Ferrara*, to measure the earth, both by the vertical and horizontal observations, which are related by *F. Riccioli* in his geography. It was only to transfer it to the meridian line, which I drew in the great church of *St. Petronius*, to keep account of it, if necessary, in the observations of the sun. At the distance of 34 toises and 2 feet of *Paris*, where the middle of the image of the sun at the winter solstice is, I marked the 600,000 part of the circumference of the earth, which is in the proportion of 57,222 toises to a degree.

F.

F. *Riccoli* and *Grimaldi* took also several ways and with a great deal of care, the measure of the earth, as it is related at length in the *Geographia reformatæ*. M. *Picard* has reduced it to 64,363 *Paris* toises to the degree.

But nothing of this kind has ever been done with more care and exactness, than what was executed by M. *Picard* in the name of the royal academy of sciences, immediately after its institution, in the three first years.

He measured exactly by triangles the distances between the parallels of *Malvoisine*, *Sourdon*, and *Amiens*, which are but at a little distance from the meridian of *Paris*, and he observed with an instrument of 10 feet, the distances of the same fixed star from the zenith of these 3 places. By the distance between *Malvoisine* and *Sourdon*, he determined the magnitude of a degree to be 57,064 toises, and by that between *Malvoisine* and *Amiens* of $1^{\circ} 22'$ to be 57,052 toises. He took for a mean between these two 57,060 toises. The base, which he actually measured is 11 times greater than that of *Snellius*. He used in the same distance but a small number of triangles in proportion to the great number, which had been used by *Snellius*. He made use of instruments more finely divided, and furnished with telescopes, which augment and diminish the distant objects better, and serve to determine the distances with a greater exactness. With several helps he made use of the finest seasons of 3 years. I assisted at several of these geographical and astronomical observations, which we concerted together.

The measure of the magnitude of a degree of the circumference of the earth, established by the academy,

academy, might already serve to correct the differences of longitudes hitherto found by too short a measure. But it was thought necessary to undertake again under the king's protection, to determine the longitudes of particular places by astronomical observations made at the same time at the royal observatory, and elsewhere. The eclipses of the moon, which may serve for this purpose, being too rare to be able to make any advantage of them in a short time, it was proposed to make use of the observations of the eclipses of the satellites of *Jupiter*, of which we had already given tables and *ephemerides* immediately after the institution of the academy. For one eclipse of the moon there happen above a hundred of one single satellite. It was found by experience, that the time of their immersions into the shadow of *Jupiter*, and of their emerfions, may be determined with more exactness and evidence, than in the eclipses of the moon. The royal academy immediately attempted this with some satisfaction. They at first had a correspondence of these observations with the academy of *Tuscany*, which was then flourishing, and with the royal society of *England*. There was not an astronomer in *Europe*, who was provided with necessary instruments, that did not bear a part in these observations, and communicate them to the academy. The king sent to have observations made not only on the coasts of *France*, but in the most considerable places of the 4 quarters of the world. Some religious orders, famous for the profession of learning both divine and human, thought of turning these observations to the service of religion in the kingdoms of the *East*, where astronomy is in reputation. Their observations, as well as those of most of the astronomers of *Europe*,

compared with those which were made at the same time at the royal observatory of *Paris*, have served to determine in a short time the differences of longitude between this and most other considerable cities.

2d. There was not any thing of more importance than to have a meridian well drawn, as that of *Paris* might be drawn thro' all *France*; to take it for bounds of the eastern and western longitudes of all the other places of the earth, as it is the most illustrious of the universe. The geographers differ among themselves in the bounds of the meridian of *Paris* in the *Mediterranean*, by the whole extent of the country between the eastern outlet of the *Rhone*, where *Ptolemy* directs it in his geography, and the city of *Valencia* in *Spain*, thro' which it is drawn by *Hondius* in his map of *Europe*. Was it not necessary to clear up a point of so great consequence in geography, and also in astronomy for the reduction of the astronomical tables from one meridian to another, and for the determination of the eclipses?

This work was begun by the description of the meridian at the observatory, both by the observations of the sun at the solstices, and by the fixed stars.

It has been several times observed, and after different manners, and a mean has been taken between the differences. The angles have been taken, which the meridian makes with the distant places seen at the observatory, the distances of which had already been determined in the first dimension. Perpendiculars have been drawn from these places to the meridian, which determine their distance to east and west, and cut the portion of the meridian intercepted between the parallels
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of these places, and of the observatory. And in calculating the distance of those places from each other, and the angle of the distance from the meridian, views have been taken to the places most advanced to the south, where the same observations have been made, always forming triangles of the preceding distances with the following. These triangles have been continued, without ever interrupting the *series*, to the southern extremity of the *kingdom*. When there did not present any remarkable objects proper for the continuation of the triangles, there were trees or pyramids elevated, or other marks visible at a distance in the places which were thought the most proper for this purpose.

In this manner the meridian was drawn from *Paris* to the highest mountains of the *Pyreneans*, which separate *Roussillon* from *Catalonia*. The principal towns which are nearest the meridian of *Paris*, where the celestial observations have been made, are *Orleans*, *Aubigny*, *Bourges*, *Aubusson*, *Aurillac*, *Rhodes*, *Alby*, and *Carcassone*, which is exactly in the meridian of *Paris*: *Perpignan* and *Colioure* were found much nearer the east than was supposed. We have not neglected the difference between the lines drawn thro' the high mountains, and the arches of the circumference of the earth which answer to them.

In these highest mountains, where it was necessary to go up, the height of the quicksilver in the barometer was observed, to compare it with the height observed at the same time at *Paris*, and to determine the heights by the comparison with the observations made elsewhere upon mountains, the height of which above the surface of the sea had been measured by levelling. The same

heights have been also observed by means of the distances from one mountain to another, and of their apparent heights taken by instruments, continuing these observations to the sea. The highest of all these mountains is the *Canigou*, which is generally covered with snow: there had been elevated upon it in the proper season, by order of the king, a sort of pyramid, which made it known at a distance. Its true height, taken from the apparent at the sea-side, and from its distance, was found to be 1440 toises, which are at least 15 *stadia*. *Cleomedes* says, there is not any mountain, of which the perpendicular height exceeds 15 *stadia*; this mountain therefore, in the judgment of that author, passes for one of the highest.

We shall not relate here the observations which we have made of the great irregularities of the direction of the needle in the mountains of *Limousin*, *Auvergne*, and *Rouergue*, abounding in mines of iron. We must not be surpris'd if the maps of these provinces are ill laid down. They cannot be otherwise, if they are drawn by the compass, as is commonly done.

We have made some observations of the heights of the pole about our meridian, about all the principal towns, where we made any stay in a favourable season, and particularly in the places determined in our triangles, to compare the differences of the latitudes found in the heavens with these dimensions taken upon the earth. Our dimensions upon the earth have been confirmed by a base of 7200 toises actually measured, and by the continuation of the triangles quite to the sea-side where we took it.

For fear of parting too far from the meridian in so long a way, we examined it by new observations in the places where we were able to do it conveniently, and we have not found any sensible difference in it greater than what is usually found, drawing it several times by different observations in the same place.

We have had a correspondence of observations of the eclipses of the satellites of *Jupiter* made at *Paris*, *Lyons*, *Marseilles*, at the same time that we made them about the meridian line, and we have found that the difference of the meridians determined by these observations agreed with those which we had found by the triangles, which have served to draw the meridian nearly in the terms as those which are made in the same place by different observers agree together. We have made the same use of the eclipse of the moon of *February* 22, 1701.

And as the difference of the meridians between *Sette* and *Montpellier* had been determined by the observations of the satellites of *Jupiter*, which were made by M. *Picard* in those places, compared with those which we have made at the same time at *Paris*, we have been willing to find the difference of these meridians by the continuation of the triangles to those places, and calculating their distances from our meridian, and reducing it into minutes and seconds, we have found it also to agree with those which we had determined by the satellites of *Jupiter*.

To have the degrees of the circumference of the earth between the parallel of the observatory and the bound of our measure in the *Pyreneans*, we made use at *Colioure* of an instrument of 10 feet radius, to observe several fixt stars near the *Zenith*, and to compare them with those which remained
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for us to observe at *Paris*, by the same instrument the next year, in the same season. In the mean time we made use of those which had been taken at *Paris* by the common instruments; and we found it to be $6^{\circ} 18'$.

In the hypothesis of the equality of the degrees of the meridian drawn upon the surface of the earth, we should have for each minute 954 toises, 5 feet, 2 inches 5 lines, and for each degree 57,292 toises. But there are some very famous mathematicians who question this hypothesis, as well as that of the direction of the perpendiculars to the same point. Since the globe of *Jupiter* has appeared to us a little oval, it has been questioned whether the earth was not also a little oval, and after the observations made by the royal academy, at *Cayenne*, *Cape-Verd*, and the *American* islands, have informed us that the pendulums of the same length make slower vibrations near the equinoctial than at a greater distance; M. *Huygens* and Sir *Isaac Newton* have endeavoured to explain this *phenomenon* by a hypothesis, which makes the equinoctial greater than the meridians, so that its figure would be flatted at the poles; whereas M. *Eisenschmid*, by comparing the different dimensions of the degrees made in different places, to make them agree together, has supposed the earth to be oval, longer from one pole to the other than according to the diameter of the equinoctial, making the meridians of an elliptical figure, of which the perpendiculars are directed to different points of the *axis*. He waited however for the success of our dimensions, to be able to judge of it with more certainty.

The magnitude of the minute, which we have just found in the *hypothesis* of the equality, in the interval between *Paris* and the parallel of
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St. Elme, exceeds that which *M. Picard* found in the same *hypothesis* in the interval between *Malvoisine* and *Sordon*, which was 951 toises $\frac{1}{3}$, and still more that which is drawn from the observations made at *Sourdon*, and *Amiens*, which make the minute 947 toises. The excess of ours above the first, is almost 4 toises, 5 feet; above the second, 7 toises, and almost 5 feet: thus the further we recede from the equinoctial, the more the dimensions upon the earth diminish, which seems favourable to the modern *hypotheses*, which we have just related, it is difficult to find any one that makes these differences agree sufficiently together.

It appears however by the comparisons which we have made, that in the space between the parallels of *Amiens* and *Colioure*, which is 7° and above $\frac{1}{3}$, the measure of the degrees going toward the equinoctial increases, so that the following degree exceeds the preceding by its 800th part, which in this interval varies from 70 toises and 2 feet, to 72 toises, and 1 foot. The degree taken from the observatory towards the north gives us 57,055 toises, and the degree taken from the observatory towards the south gives 57,126 toises $\frac{1}{2}$. By this progression the magnitude of the other degrees will be found till that which it continues uniformly. The minute from the observatory towards the north is 951 toises, 5 feet $\frac{1}{2}$. It is equal to the distance between the observatory and the church of *St. Severin*, and may pass for the smallest diameter of *Paris*. Toward the south, the minute from the observatory is 951 toises, 5 feet, 7 inches $\frac{1}{2}$; and the augmentation of 1 inch, $\frac{1}{2}$, in each minute amounts to 72 toises from one degree to another,

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We have been surpris'd to see that this augmentation of $\frac{1}{800}$ th part from one degree to another, at this distance from the poles, agrees with the augmentation of the degrees of the true distance of the moon in its *apogeeum* from the same degrees of distance between 40 and 48 degrees, from the pole on one side, and the *apogeeum* of the moon on the other. For in this place the degrees of the true distance of the moon in its *apogeeum* increase also from one to another $\frac{1}{800}$ th part. Thus the perpendicular lines, which terminate the degrees measured in the heavens, would be analogous to the lines of the mean longitudes of the moon, and the arches of the circumference of the earth between these perpendiculars would be of the same magnitude as the arches of the same circumference contained between the lines corresponding with those of the mean motion of the moon.

If this equality, which is found in these 7 degrees of the circumference of the earth, of which we have the dimensions, is found in the whole circumference; it is what we dare not advance, tho' the moon has some share in the *equilibrium* of the sea, to which it brings some variation evident in the flux and reflux regulated by its motions. It would be a fact to be verified by dimensions of a greater extent, if other princes would contribute as much as the king to the perfection of the sciences.

F I N I S.

